

The NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Guidance of the Returning Veteran

Harvard Report and the High School

General Education in the Colleges

What Industry Expects from Education

Supply of and Demand for Teachers

What Labor Wants from Education

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

Two schools, the Missouri School for the Blind and the North Side Catholic School for Boys, both in Saint Louis, Missouri, are erroneously listed as accredited schools in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*. Readers of the *QUARTERLY* should correct their copies accordingly.

THE DEMOCRATIC UNITY OF THE ASSOCIATION

To most of the school men and women visiting an annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the first few times, the organization of our Association must seem vague and somewhat loosely conceived. The majority of those attending the Annual Meetings are interested in the activity of a particular Commission, and the way in which the program of that Commission fits into the general organization and purpose of the entire Association is not always readily apparent.

In the first place, it must be understood that our Association is a most democratic one. Actions of the Commissions and of the Executive Committee, are submitted to the entire membership for acceptance or rejection. Members of the various Commissions are selected by the Commissions themselves, and members of the Executive

Committee must receive the approval of the entire list of members. Policies, plans, and procedures of all component parts of the Association, and of the Association itself, stem from the individual members, and must receive the approval of the general membership before they may be put into operation.

The membership of the Association is composed of three groups—universities, colleges, and secondary schools; officers of the Association and members of the Commissions; and honorary members. The work of the Association is carried on through the Executive Committee, a Commission on Colleges and Universities, a Commission on Secondary Schools, and a Commission on Research and Service.

The Commissions on Colleges and Universities and on Secondary Schools are practically autonomous within the limits of the constitution, and the Commission on Research and Service functions within the limits of the desires of its members, with the additional provision that it shall engage in such research, study, and activity as may be referred to it by the Executive Committee.

As each of the Commissions represents the particular interest of its members, it is necessary that all of the activities be coordinated, and this co-

ordination is achieved through the top control exercised by the Executive Committee of the Association. This group, representing the three Commissions and the general membership, has final authority to hear appeals from the decisions of the Commissions relative to the approval of colleges, universities, and secondary schools, and through its ultimate control of the budget can direct the activities of the entire organization. In addition to its control of the budget, its power to fill interim vacancies, and its authorization to determine the time and place of the Annual meeting, the Executive Committee is specifically charged with the responsibility "to co-ordinate the work of the various Commissions in such ways as to further most effectively the object of the Association."

The Executive Committee thus seems to have final and complete control of the Association, but in harmony with the democratic tendencies of the group, the power of the Executive Committee is definitely limited by a constitutional provision. This limitation is stated in these words, "All actions taken by the Executive Committee shall be subject to approval or revision by the Association with the exception of actions taken relative to those matters over which the Executive Committee has been given final authority."

It seems to me that it is very important to the success of the Association that each member understand clearly how our group functions. The above brief explanation may assist some in viewing the various parts of the Association in their true perspective. For a complete and accurate picture of the framework within which we operate, a member should study with some care the Constitution as printed in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*.

R. NELSON SNIDER

President of the North Central Association

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION AS A SPIRITUAL FORCE

Since the latest annual meeting of the Association, both the lay and the educational press have paid close attention to the circumstances which have led to the resignation of the superintendent of schools and several members of the Board of Education at Chicago. The mayor, himself, has taken a lively interest in the situation. As much may be said of many civic organizations, especially the city churches. Moreover, further developments of a constructive character are anticipated.

In assessing the role which individual agencies have had in this effort to correct questionable policies and practices in the second largest system of schools in the country, without detracting from the credit justly due others it may in all justice be said that the action taken by the North Central Association last March precipitated the developments mentioned above. It is a matter of record that the superintendent of schools was dropped from membership in the NEA, but apparently nothing of a positive character resulted within the Chicago schools from that fact. But when the North Central Association laid down a proposed line of action with the accreditation of the Chicago high schools as an implied point of reference, action followed at once.

On a lesser scale but qualitatively similar in effect is the position taken by the Association in regard to conditions in another municipality. Rumors of under-cover dealings by various members of the Board of Education in that city have persisted for years. During that time the local school executives have tried to protect the interests of the schools as best they could by appealing first to one agency and then to another, the North Central State

Committee included. The Committee responded with at least temporarily favorable results. However, conditions persisted which the Committee judged to be prejudicial to sound educational practice and last March the ultimate thing was done: the senior high school in that city was dropped from the list of accredited schools. This action has speeded the successful efforts of local citizens to secure a grand jury investigation of the affairs of the Board of Education, which will soon get under way.

Whence comes such potency as this? Doubtless a fundamental consideration is the fact that the Association is not trying to sell a bill of goods, unless its efforts to maintain a commendable degree of educational effectiveness in member institutions be such a bill. Instead, this organization is the implementation of an idea, the notion that a voluntary, non-statutory relationship which stems from a mutually desired objective commits those concerned to an obligation which transcends the force of law; namely, the obligation to live up to what such a relationship implies. It is identical with the commitment inherent in a gentlemen's agreement, or with the spiritual substance of one's given word.

This moral tone is epitomized in the character of the men who, by now, personify the spirit, the very heart and core of the Association. During the half-century of the organization's existence, in fact from its very beginning, some of the country's most renowned educators have been officially identified with it. But the great strength of the Association does not lie wholly there; it inheres, as a matter of course, predominantly in the run-of-mine personalities representative of the schools and colleges of twenty states. From these combined sources comes this strength.

Affiliation with such an organization, wholly aside from the practical benefits which such a relationship entails, is eagerly sought and, when once attained, is cherished. Its prestige value is great, so great indeed that delegations have been heard in protest when, on occasion, accreditation has, for cause, been withheld or withdrawn. In one instance, legal action was resorted to to compel the Association, if possible, to restore such recognition.

When the depression of the thirties was at its worst, the legislature of one commonwealth debated the question of outlawing North Central membership among the schools of that state. The ostensible purpose of the proposed action was to lower school costs by forbidding any school supported by public funds to affiliate with the Association which made such "unreasonable" demands as those reflected in its well known *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria*. But that legislature could find nothing tangible to investigate, no buildings or corporate assets or board of directors to label "The North Central Association"—only a voluntary organization of like-minded individuals banded together in the interests of better education. Thus, even as those legislators discovered, the North Central Association is not an organic creation, but a relationship, an educational aspiration leading to the enhancement of educational opportunity which is shared by nearly thirty-five hundred member institutions—a fact which makes it a potent force transcending, we repeat, the force of law because it is wholly voluntary in character.

HARLAN C. KOCH

REEVES SUCCEEDS RUSSELL AS
SECRETARY OF COMMISSION
ON COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

On August 9, 1946, Chairman Friley, of the Commission on Colleges and

Universities, released the following announcement:

Professor Floyd W. Reeves, of the University of Chicago, has been appointed Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, to succeed Professor John Dale Russell. Mr. Russell is retiring from the Secretaryship because of his appointment as Director of the Division of Higher Education in the United States Office of Education. Professor Norman Burns, also of the University of Chicago, has been named Associate Secretary of the Commission, to assist Mr. Reeves. The office of the Secretary of the Commission will continue to be located at the University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Dr. Reeves is Professor of Administration at the University of Chicago. His connection with the North Central Association dates back more than twenty years. He was a member of the research staff which developed the present North Central Association accrediting procedures in the early 1930's, and at that time took a leading part in the work of the Association's Committee on the Revision of Standards. Few men in America have had as wide experience as Mr. Reeves in surveying colleges and universities and in studying problems of higher education.

Dr. Burns joined the faculty of the University of Chicago in 1945 as Assistant Professor of Education and Dean of Students in the University College. He was formerly on the staff of the University of Buffalo. He has had considerable experience in college and university surveys, having collaborated in a number of survey projects with Dr. George A. Works, who

was formerly Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities.

CHARLES E. FRILEY, *Chairman*
Commission on Colleges and Universities

PLANS FOR PROVIDING
TEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES
UNDER THE MEAD BILL

The President has signed the Mead bill (S.2085) and the Congress has appropriated \$75,000,000 to implement its provisions. The Act authorizes the Federal Works Agency to provide temporary educational facilities, other than housing, to public and non-profit institutions in which the U. S. Commissioner of Education certifies that an acute shortage exists or impends in such facilities needed for the education of veterans.

Responsibility for developing and administering a plan for discharging the duties required of the Commissioner of Education has been delegated to the Division of Higher Education and will be the immediate responsibility of Dr. Ernest V. Hollis, Specialist in State-Wide Programs. He will have associated with him in the Washington office Mr. Henry H. Armsby, Specialist in Engineering Education. They will have a field staff in each of the nine regional offices of the Federal Works Agency to receive and study applications, visit institutions, and make final decisions on the nature and extent of needs that can be certified to FWA. It is believed that decentralized administration will assure prompt decisions made after face to face contacts.

The U. S. Office of Education will seek the full cooperation of educational authorities in carrying the professional responsibility placed upon it by the Congress for certifying to the nature and extent of institutional need for temporary educational facilities. It is

glad to perform this service for the schools and colleges and for the Federal Works Agency. The FWA of course has the full responsibility of providing facilities for such of the certified needs as its funds and materials permit.

The following statements will prove helpful to applicants:

1. FWA plans for allocating educational facilities assure an equitable distribution to institutions of each State through apportioning funds to States on the basis of the number of veterans approved for training by the Veterans Administration.

2. Because 90 percent of the veterans in school are enrolled in colleges and pre-collegiate vocational schools, FWA is currently limiting applications to these two groups of educational institutions. The U. S. Commissioner of Education through his representatives will make his "findings" in keeping with the restriction, but he probably will find many more cases of acute shortage than FWA can satisfy with funds now available.

3. The order in which FWA plans to provide facilities certified by representatives of the U. S. Commissioner of Education usually will be determined by acuteness of need, by availability of the facility, by availability of funds, and by the supply of labor and material.

4. Therefore it is more important for an institution to file a factually documented justification of actual emergency needs occasioned by the presence of veterans than it is to be first in filing. Few facilities can be supplied before the opening of the 1946 fall sessions.

5. The finding of need will be made by Office of Education representatives located in each Division Office, Bureau of Community Facilities, FWA. Specific inquiries should be addressed to the Chief Educational Officer of the Division to which a given State is assigned. In Washington the Office of Education will have a small staff devoted to policy-making, overall administration, the supervision of its professional field staff, and liaison with other Federal agencies participating in the program. Two or more weeks will be required for recruiting the professional field staff and getting it on duty in Division Offices of the Bureau of Community Facilities, Federal Works Agency.

6. On request the "Justification of Need" form will be mailed from the FWA Division Office—not from the Office of Education in Washington. Applicants may want to secure it in

person and discuss their problems face to face before submitting the form. Some FWA Division Offices, Fort Worth and San Francisco for example, plan statewide meetings of institutional representatives as a means of clarifying and expediting the program.

7. Office of Education representatives will make certification through the legal entity of which a school or college is a part. This means, for example, that each college under a board of regents may prepare an individual justification but it must clear through the central administrative or coordinating machinery of the legal unit.

Copies of "Information for Applicants," a bulletin of instructions, may be had on request.

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

HAROLD L. BODA is assistant superintendent of schools in charge of curriculum, Dayton, Ohio; T. H. BROAD, is principal of the Daniel Webster senior high school, Tulsa, Oklahoma; ERNEST C. COLWELL is president of the University of Chicago; WILL FRENCH is professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University; CLINTON S. GOLDEN is assistant to the president of the United Steel Workers of America; EARL S. KALP is a former instructor in social studies at the Theodore Roosevelt Junior high school, Des Moines, Iowa; LEVERETT S. LYON is the chief executive officer of the Chicago Association of Commerce; RAY C. MAUL is registrar and placement officer at Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas; E. L. MEADER is coordinator of veteran training in the public schools, Wichita, Kansas; PAUL C. PACKER is dean of the College of Education at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; BENJAMIN F. WRIGHT is professor of government at Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts; and WENDALL W. WRIGHT is the director of the office of Veterans' Affairs at Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE COLLEGES¹

BENJAMIN F. WRIGHT

Harvard University

THE peculiar genius of the United States of America seems to be production. It is much easier for this country to produce, and it always seems much more fitting for us to produce, than to ask for what end the production is taking place. Anyone who works in a productive industry, who makes things or who assists in making things, feels that he is doing something real. It is much easier for us to fight a war and win it, than it is for us to pause beforehand and consider with care fitting for a project of that importance, why we are going to fight that war and what the ends are which we want to achieve from it.

Sometimes our failure to do just that has brought almost fatal results. In the field of education, which is obviously one of the greatest enterprises in the country and, I should suppose, relatively greater than in any other country in the world, it is far easier for us to put up buildings,—and we outdo the world at that; to manufacture textbooks, and we probably outdo the world at that; to produce prefabricated teachers, and again I think we probably outdo the world at that; and to produce assembly line students,—than it is for us to consider in advance why those buildings are being built.

I know we use the word “democracy” or “education.” We have to use them, but they don’t answer the questions which need to be answered. It is much easier for us to put up build-

ings and supply textbooks and teachers and turn out students by the millions, than it is for us to consider aims and objectives and ends, and yet after all, the aims and objectives and ends must be worthwhile or there is no point to the whole thing.

No one except perhaps the contractors assume that the buildings are ends in themselves. I venture to think that the teachers are not ends in themselves even though I am one, and the students, although they may be the ends, are of course ends only in the sense that they receive an education which fits them for life in the kind of society we have and want to build.

I think it is entirely appropriate and in keeping with our peculiar genius that we have done our best in the way of college education in this country in the last generation or so in regard to special training, such as professional training and vocational training of one kind or another. We are good at that—very good. We can turn out doctors and engineers and architects and lawyers who are excellent as technicians; we can also turn out historians, chemists, dentists, economists, classicists,—we could run through the whole list,—and they are well trained specialists too, but that isn’t enough.

I think myself that specialized training, that is to say, training which is well beyond the elementary stage in at least one subject, so well beyond it that the student has a quite reasonable feeling of competence in a given field, is essential in a college education, but I don’t think it is enough.

In recent years there has been a

¹ Delivered before the second general session of the Association, Friday, March 29, in Chicago. This is an adaptation of the stenotypist’s report of Mr. Wright’s address.

good deal of talk about general education. I need not say here that those of us who are members of the committee at Harvard which drafted the report on General Education coined the phrase. We did not originate the idea; we borrowed it from others just as we borrowed most of what is in that book from others. We were quite frank in trying to learn. I very well remember, a little over three years ago when we were called together by President Conant and asked to undertake this particular problem, that there were twelve specialists in that room and all of them looked puzzled. We were biologists, historians, political scientists; in short, specialists. We were backward; we had not even heard of general education; we weren't familiar with that problem. We had gone along for twenty-odd years of teaching concerned only with our own specialized thinking, believing that was enough. We learned, and I can assure you that it was a pretty difficult process although a very rewarding one, at least so far as I am concerned.

Specialization as an essential is simply inadequate by itself. It is narrow. It trains a person in one kind of thinking, in one kind of approach, in one body of learning. It leaves all of the other areas ordinarily unexplored. It simply doesn't deal with them because it is specialization. It is rarely concerned with ends, particularly with the ends of human action. It is rarely concerned with the relationship of the fields of learning to each other. Moreover, specialization tends to divide rather than to unite. There are perhaps twenty to thirty different kinds of specialization taking place on the campus of the large institutions. To that extent the intellectual life of the institution is divided.

Now that is not necessarily a bad thing. Society requires it; demands

it; but it should also be evident to us that society demands more than division. Society requires something which unites, which brings together. We know that a democracy is an extraordinarily difficult kind of society to make work just as we know we don't make it work perfectly and doubtless never shall. One of the things we know about it—and there are all sorts of things we don't know about it,—democracy cannot be made to work even in a mediocre manner unless the citizens of a democracy have certain things in common. They must have in common certain traditions, certain ideas, certain standards of value, certain customary ways of looking at problems or their society will go to pot. It will fly apart. The centripetal forces will be greater than the centrifugal, that we know.

Surely it is one of the responsibilities of education, although I think here we are talking primarily about education in the lower grades and in the secondary schools but not exclusively so, to develop the common standards and ideas and practices, the common measures of value, the common sense of decency without which democracy simply cannot be made to work successfully.

That is a responsibility of what we call general education. It is not the responsibility at any rate of specialized education. Although, I repeat, specialized education is essential, it is simply inadequate.

The student needs a breadth of training, of experience, of intellectual resources as well as depth and intensity. He needs to have some experience in sharing as well as in his own particular line of endeavor whatever it may be. Beyond that it seems clear enough that, intellectually and educationally speaking, the relationships of various subjects or various areas to each other

are vastly important in the development of a fully rounded, intelligent citizenry.

How can you expect a specialist in one field to communicate intellectually with a specialist in another field? He has some concept of the varieties of learning, of the inter-relationships of different bodies of learning, of the different senses of values and tests of truth which prevail outside of his own profession as well as within it.

How many times have you talked with or heard of the highly skilled engineer who knows nothing except engineering and talks about nothing except engineering? He possibly listens to some of the radio programs and reads some of the comics. As I have indicated before, specialized education rarely considers ends, objectives, values. Over three hundred years ago John Cotton, in a book which bears the attractive title, "A Brief Exposition of Practical Observations of Eclectics," proved a common fault in scholars; namely, that they seek to gather more and more knowledge but never consider what to do with it or what use to put it to or whether they themselves are the better for it.

Thus ever kind of technical and professional training and specialization puts all the greater responsibility upon general education. In other words, general education is not just education which is not special. Any such negative definition as that is totally inadequate. The bare beginning of general education has positive responsibilities which make it more than something negative. It has the responsibility, if I may repeat, to supply the individual with those common standards, traditions, ideas and allusions which make a common life possible, which make a democracy capable of working. Without them, we can hope for nothing except to disband. It deals with the

inter-relationships of the fields of learning, with methods of study, and with end objectives, aims, ideals, not only in special fields, but for all society, which is to say a normal life.

This is our problem and an extraordinarily difficult one: How are we going to achieve those ends? Let me say I have no illusions about the originality of the proposals in the Harvard report. We borrowed shamelessly from hundreds of scholars, from their books, their writings, and in interviews with them and with those who came to help us, some for as long as two or three months. We had to have help or we never would have done so well as we did.

Of course, in the colleges the commonest attempt to secure general values is through what is called "distribution." Much is to be said for the requirement that students take a number of subjects outside their respective fields. Generally each student must take something in science, English, social science, humanities other than English and possibly mathematics. The rules vary, of course, from college to college, but they have been in force for many years.

There are however, certain limitations to that way of getting at the desired end of general education. It doesn't insure that even within a single college the students will have much in common; that there will be any concerted, systematic, effective way of getting at the inter-relationships of fields of learning; or that there will be any serious attempt to deal with the aims and objectives of society. It doesn't insure these largely because what the student takes outside of his special field consists of introductory courses. Introductory to what? Ordinarily introductory to courses which the student never takes. He will take, for example, an introductory course in

chemistry designed usually for the man who is aiming at further courses in chemistry; yet, by and large, the student never takes any course after the introductory one. He similarly takes an introductory course in history or in philosophy or in economics which is intended for the student who is going to follow it up for the would-be specialist, and yet the distributor, the student not specializing in a particular field, ordinarily never follows it up. He takes the introductory course and then drops the subject.

Now the introductory courses are usually excellent ones designed for general education. When courses are so designed the student gets a varied experience.

He learns something about the methods of investigating bodies of learning and about standards of value outside of his own special field, but the system is really not adequate to the great purposes you and I have in mind. That is why, of course, for more than twenty years some institutions have been experimenting with it. (Harvard is late in getting under way.) That is why many institutions have long since either abandoned or modified the aforementioned distribution system, or whatever it may be called at any given place. That is why so many institutions have attempted to design not introductory, but elementary courses which are attended for all students and which will be part of their common intellectual training in a given institution. Such courses will seek to give those students a broad experience which extends beyond merely specialized introductory courses and which will deal with the end of intellectual action, the objectives of education.

Such courses have had varying success, as you well know. They are difficult ones. Usually they run to great numbers. Ordinarily, they have been

experimental in nature. I repeat, they have not always been successful.

I am inclined to think from a study I have been making of the subject, that most of them have been too inclusive; that a great many without examining the problem have assumed that the student could take in and understand the final answers without having built up to them; and that the student's capacity for taking in and digesting vocal information is greater than it is.

Mind you^o, I am not saying such courses have been over-estimating the intelligence of the student. I think we teachers ordinarily underestimate the intelligence of students and overestimate their capacity for taking in book information, having it mean something in their lives.

It is my own conviction that students are interested in ideas and values and given a fair chance in terms of their vocabulary and background and what they can be expected to understand of the allusions and references, that they can take, say, extraordinarily advanced theoretical writings. They should be able to do this provided that they are not expected to take in only the conclusions about what X says about Y who has said something about Z. We don't do them justice when we deny them the opportunity to read the great arguments for themselves. Here I am not trying to present a plea for the hundred best books. Instead, I am trying to plead with all the educational faith I have that they be given the best books, the best treatment of ideas that they can take, and I think they can take quite a lot.

We must not confuse the foregoing with those "surveys" which attempt to orient the students in fields of which they are completely ignorant. How many times have we, as teachers, brought ourselves up with the realiza-

tion, "I am expecting them to understand a conclusion which it took me ten, twenty, or thirty years to build up, and expecting them to understand it in three minutes." That isn't fair; it is bad teaching; and I have done it many a time.

What I am suggesting is that the orientation course is a dangerous device. I am not saying that every orientation course is bad or has failed. I am saying it is dangerous and needs to be introduced with great care, particularly when it is introduced in the ordinary manner. The college is ignorant of the fact that the student hasn't had the experience which the course frequently assumes he has had.

I am objecting to what I call, for lack of a better word, the block survey course, which introduces the freshman or the sophomore to all of the important fields of learning by giving him five weeks of subject "A" by an expert, four weeks of subject "B" by another expert, six weeks of subject "C" by another expert, three weeks of subject "D," and then if the student is still alive, four weeks of subject "E." There is something to be said for that too. It may be said after I have finished.

Again I am doubtful that the student at the beginning of his career can be expected to take in so many conclusions, so much information about so many fields in which he has not himself had a chance to develop any skill, any knowledge, or any understanding. It is somewhat like giving him a map of a trip he didn't take. Have you ever had to listen to the neighbors talk about or look at the neighbor's pictures of their trip abroad? Have you ever looked at a set of conclusions when you knew nothing about the material which led up to them? I think that there are the same kind of dangers in the block survey course and I must remain skeptical about it, at least until

I see better evidence than I have been able to see up to the present time.

What I am suggesting is that there is a need for such elementary courses as I have already described. In the designing of these courses we must be careful to bear in mind the end for which they are constructed. We must be extremely careful to remember that there is very little merit in studying most subjects unless the subject is presented in a coherent fashion, so that it has an internal unity of its own, so it is a study of something. It doesn't have to be the study of a subject. It can be a study of relationships, of ends, of objectives, but it must have some coherence, some unity, or it is likely to fail.

If you have, as I have, a high conception of the importance of the objectives and of the possibilities of such elementary courses, whether there be two or three or four or whatever the number of such courses may be (I would plunge for about three), they would provide general education, it seems to me. Of course, I am reflecting the opinion both of the committee which drafted the report of which I am proud to say I was a member, and the committee which is attempting to put it into effect at Harvard of which I am, for my sins, the chairman. It seems to us, I should say, that general education should never end with the sophomore year. Why do we so often designate the freshman and sophomore years for general education and for specialized education, the junior and senior years? Is there any good reason for that? What are the assumptions? Is it just a matter of administrative neatness, simplicity, and precision? That may be the reason. I have done enough college administrative work to understand that. But it is inadequate when educational values are jeopardized thereby. Is it that we should al-

low the student to finish general education at the end of the sophomore year, tuck it away with the old, abandoned notebooks, forget about it, and say, "Now I go on to something more important and interesting, namely specialized education"?

I think there is ample reason for saying that general education is far more important than that. Is it that general education is easy and specialized education is difficult? On the whole, I think the reverse is nearer the truth. It seems that there are very good reasons indeed for saying that general education and specialized education are two aspects of the same college process, that they should go hand in hand from the freshman through the senior year. There is no necessity for breaking the college curriculum in two and saying, "Let's have a general education for the student until he gets relatively mature and then he can go on and learn something important."

I am sure some of you will say, "He comes from Harvard; the situation is different in our college." Well, I have been teaching at Harvard for twenty years, but I graduated from a state university and taught there for three years before I went to Harvard. I haven't forgotten what I learned about the problems of the former type of institution. I know something about other institutions also. I realize circumstances are different. The Harvard Committee didn't try to prescribe a system to be adopted without modification by every institution.

What we are talking about is a set of principles. What we are objecting to, so far as we do object, is the easy way out of saying, "General education ends with the sophomore year. Now comes the interesting, the difficult, the important job of specialized education." I don't believe it. I realize that there are now hundreds of junior col-

leges in this country. I think that their development is a very important part of the story of general education. I welcome it. Obviously, I am not talking about that situation here. But the principle so far as it can be applied is an important principle, or so it seems to us.

Now in the upper years of the college when the student has grasped some of the tools of the academic trade, when his vocabulary has expanded, when he understands a large body of reference, when he has begun to think in terms of values, of ideas, of ends, when he has begun to attain the capacity to learn a great deal in a special field, then we believe the most fruitful years of general education can come. Paradoxically, we don't think they should come in courses which are shared by all students. Maybe so; we are not sure yet, but we are inclined to think not. We feel that in those upper years there should be a large, probably a very large, group of courses which will seek to serve the aims of general education.

A course in fine arts would be excellent for the student who wishes to learn something about values in that field. As for philosophy, not every course in that area is good for general education. Many of them are just as specialized or narrow as courses in physics. The same holds true for virtually every field. Since Hiroshima it has become an obligation for us to learn something about the methods, the aims, of science, and if we do it successfully, we shall have contributed greatly to our general education, provided that we interpret science in terms of the ends of society. We must not send the scientists off to an ivory tower. Experimentation with interrelationships in broad areas of learning will, I think, help us develop new concepts of general education.

Sometimes courses fit only into customary departmental routine. But we have to break with custom and keep on doing it. One method is by developing courses which refuse to fit into any given area. At Harvard we are trying to drench the business school in human relationships. Many people think it's a phoney. I don't think it is. The dean of that school has been teaching a course in human relationships and doing it successfully. We have found from our alumni, found it clearly, that they are dealing with human relations and if that course is a success, something has been added to the intellectual stature of both student and teacher. That course does not fit into any psychology classification. It has possibilities for general education. In other words, there are courses given outside of departmental lines which need to be protected and nourished because of the opportunities which they afford for general education.

That is not a simple and easy prescription which can be applied automatically in every college or university. It is a program which we intend to apply gradually, slowly, experimentally. We don't know when it will fully go into effect, perhaps in three or five or seven years. At the moment we are not particularly interested in that. What we do want to work out is the development of courses of instruction which will lead toward the objectives I talked about earlier. I say again, at the risk of elaborating, that we believe with all there is in us, that general education is too important to be dropped with a thud at the end of the sophomore year.

We know that democracy in educa-

tion or education for democracy does involve grave responsibilities. We know that educational democracy, like democracy itself, can never be fit into a neat set of regulations.

When the German armies overran France and the low countries and it became evident that we would be involved in war sooner or later to protect our way of life, some of the students in my department came to their instructors and asked to be referred to a good book on the principles of democracy. That was not only a reasonable question, and since my department is the department of government, it was an admirable, a praiseworthy one. But it was an implied criticism of us who hadn't given an adequate conception of the principles of democracy to our students. The only thing we regretted was that we could not refer them to what we believe is a good book on the principles of democracy, because there isn't any. If they had asked us for a good book on the principles of Communism, or on the principles of Fascism, it would have been easy. There are lots of them because Communism and Fascism are neat, logical patterns of thought. You can diagram them. You can put them into little phrases and you can add them up and subtract them. Democracy isn't like that. To this day there isn't a book that brings within two covers the foundational principles on which we stand. Democracy is just that evasive.

Education, that is, general education, affords a considerable part of education for democracy. But it is not easy. There is no simple answer to it. It is so important that it is eternally worth working toward!

THE HARVARD REPORT AND THE HIGH SCHOOL¹

WILL FRENCH
Columbia University

THE Report of the Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*, is a report to the Harvard faculty proposing modifications in the educational program of Harvard College. But quite obviously it was written and intended to be read as a pronouncement calculated to change the course of American youth education generally, and the reviews and comments upon it show that it has been so regarded by college and high-school educators as well as by the press.

Some reaction from the colleges is already on the record. The Harvard faculty has itself approved the Report. There is wide agreement at the college level that general education should be conceived "as an education for an informed responsible life in our society." It is agreed that the purpose of this general education is to implant "common standards and common purposes" and that it must be the property of all youth, thus preparing them "for life in the broad sense of completeness as a human being." However, as indicated by Jacques Barzun in an article in the October number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, the main features of the plan proposed for Harvard College have been borrowed from plans of general education which have been in operation in other colleges from fourteen to twenty-seven years. Barzun holds that the colleges would have been served better by the Harvard Report had it proposed "practical solutions" to some of the problems and difficulties that

have been encountered by colleges already providing general education for their students.

Though the colleges may give general approval to the Harvard Committee's report as far as it applies to the colleges, the high schools may take issue with those parts dealing with secondary education at two important points. First, there is the question of whether there is now the well-nigh complete absence of a common program of education at the high school level which this Committee reports. Second, there is the question of whether the Committee's plan of general education for the high schools is an effective one for use with the student bodies of present-day high schools which increasingly represent the entire range of learning ability to be found among the youth of a community.

In considering the first of these questions, the high school educators, like their opposite members in the colleges, will readily accept the proposal that general education should be chiefly concerned with preparing youth for responsible living in a free society.

Just as Barzun points out that Lowell made similar proposals for college education antedating those of this committee by over fifty years, so the high-school educators will recall that over fifty years, so the high-school educators will recall that Dr. Alexander Inglis, professor of education at Harvard until his death in 1924, taught that the secondary schools' *first* responsibility was to provide a common program of "integrating education for the development of that amount of

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like-mindedness, of unity in thought, habits, ideals and standards, requisite for social cohesion and social solidarity." Therefore, wide agreement to the Committee's proposal that a program of general education in high school with social-civic purposes carrying top priority can be expected. It is a distinct advantage to have an institution of Harvard's deserved reputation state as this Report does, that the high schools of the United States have primary obligations to perform in no way related to that of college entrance. It helps also to have President Conant in more recent addresses at Teachers College underscore the point that the colleges must understand that the high schools have major responsibilities for good social-civic education for vast numbers of youth for whom four years of college is not possible.

But according to the Harvard Report, such a common, integrating program no longer exists in the high schools. The Report holds that the practice of offering a number of varied curricula in the high school taken in conjunction with the effect of the unit-course system "divides the high school into a number of lesser schools which, at least so far as the curriculum is concerned, are virtually sealed off from each other." Thus the Report indicates students are alienated "from each other in mind and outlook because their courses of study for the various diplomas are so distinct. . . ."

Experienced secondary-school men will be inclined to take issue with the Committee at this point. They might agree with the Committee that the present program of general education in the high school has not been carefully enough planned, that is a too disjointed collection of various subjects, or that it varies too much from community to community and from state to state. They will not, however,

generally agree that there is no common program which high-school students take or that those in one curriculum are "sealed off" or "alienated" from those in another curriculum. They know that in all high schools there are "constant" subjects required of all students in all curricula and that, therefore, in spite of differentiated curricula, there is a common program of education. Furthermore, state laws, regulations of state departments, prescriptions of local Boards of Education, and the clinging hand of educational tradition all operate to cause some of the older academic subjects still to be required even in the vocational curricula farthest removed from the older curricular patterns.

This common, required-of-all program which is characteristic of our high schools was closely studied and reported upon in 1932 by the National Survey of Secondary Education. More recent tabulations of subject enrollments by state departments of education and by regional accrediting agencies indicate that the findings reported by this National Survey present a reasonably accurate picture of what the facts are today. This Survey noted that despite the fact that a vast number of new and most non-academic courses were added by the high schools during the period of 1890-1932, yet the subjects still most taken by high school pupils were from the academic fields. "High-school graduates have taken much more academic than non-academic work, the proportions ranging from 2 to 1 to approximately 5 to 1." Two thirds of the work taken in high school was, on the average, academic. Furthermore, the Survey continues, "a study of the distribution of high school work taken by graduates of a number of high schools in 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930 shows that the academic subjects dominated the

program of studies throughout the period from 1890-1930 although specialized schools showed a tendency to break away from traditional courses." The Survey shows also that in representative schools the mean percent of time spent on each of the academic subject fields was: English, 21; social studies, 16; foreign language, 13; mathematics, 12; and science, 12. The remaining approximately 25 percent was spent in all other subject fields, most of which were non-academic. So it would seem that despite the lack of a planned nation-wide effort to set up a standard pattern of common education at the high-school level, we do have a program of common education in this country, and it cannot be said that the multiplication of curricula and of electives has "sealed off" or "alienated" pupils in the various curricula from each other. The facts are that both by requirements of the schools and by the preferences of pupils there has been a general and strong tendency for pupils in all curricula—contrary to the fears of the Harvard Committee—to take at least 50 percent of their work from a common program which *has been made up of academic subjects*. The problem, then, at the high school level is not one of instituting a common program of education but a program which effectively achieves with all pupils the desired social integration expected of a good program of general education. Some high school educators will therefore read with disappointment the part of the Harvard Report which sets out a "plan" for general education in high school. The plan proposed by the Committee as a better program of general education at the high school level calls for all youth to be required to take "three units of English, three in science and mathematics, and two in social studies" as a minimum in a four-year

high school course. It is the Committee's thought that three more units from these fields might well be taken by all. In what respect does this differ from what we now have? The English recommendation is now being generally met. Many pupils are now getting two units of social study either by requirement or election. In the area of science and mathematics, most students are credited with two of mathematics and one of science, or vice-versa, in the course of the four years that the Harvard Report includes in the high school.

It is then a fair question as to what the Report proposes as a program of general education for the high school beyond a more definitely fixed division of time among the four areas of knowledge. This more standardized division may be a good thing but it is scarcely a breath-taking educational pronouncement.

This brings us to the second issue raised at an earlier point; namely, that of the effectiveness of the proposed plan when used in high schools whose students reflect such wide ranges of intellectual ability and social backgrounds as is now the case. Many high school educators who have been most directly involved in the problem of developing an effective common program of general education at the high school level will feel that the Harvard Committee's plan reveals a lack of close contact between it and the mind of the typical high school pupil. The Committee's plan in the judgment of this group of high school educators is open to question as an effective means of securing the preparation for responsible living in a free society, which all agree is desirable. The work of this professional group in the high schools, their individual writings on the problem, and such committee reports as that of the National Association of Secondary

Schools' Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education which was published in 1936, all point toward a conviction that any plan for this common education which is based upon organization of this program around areas of knowledge is not the most effective plan when used with present-day unselected high school student-bodies. Dr. Francis Spaulding, then Dean of the school of Education at Harvard and now Commissioner of Education-elect for New York, was a member of that Orientation Committee. Unfortunately he was not a member of this Harvard Committee, being absent from Harvard on military duty. The Orientation Committee Report stressed the point that the practice of organizing this common integrating element in the high school curriculum around areas of knowledge was less effective than one where content was organized around the problems and situations of current living, in which we want youth to use their learning. This idea leads in the direction of a common curriculum of general education organized around problems of health, civic life, home membership, and economic life, for example, rather than around fields of knowledge. Under such a plan all the fields of knowledge—history, literature, science, and the arts—would be drawn upon when they could contribute to better thinking about and acting upon problems and situations of individual and group living in the home, community, state, nation, and world. It therefore can be seen that it is not a plan for attempting to omit knowledge, tradition, principles, laws, and the lessons of human experience from the program of general education. It was proposed by the Orientation Committee after careful study as a *more* effective plan for getting all boys and girls to make large and constant use of these values in their lives in a free

society than is any plan which presents students with blocks of logically organized knowledge.

The reason for thinking that this proposed *life-use* organization of the content of general education is a more effective plan than an organization calling for the study of a number of required subjects in the areas of knowledge, stems from the experiences of high school educators and others who have been responsible for teaching unselected groups of high school youth. Briefly summed up, this experience teaches that if one wants youth of all levels of ability and types of interests generally to learn in the sense of becoming more and more competent to think and act as responsible young citizens, the teaching and learning situations of the school must be seen by the pupils as similar to those in life in which they are expected to use what they have learned in school. The most able of these youth *can* make the deductions, generalizations, and applications of what they learn in school under the subject-organized curriculum to the aspects of their living to which this learning applies, no matter how remote the connections and associations with life-use are. The average students cannot easily make these associations; the least able hardly do so at all; and even the best pupils learn more when the connections between school-learning and life-use are easily and directly made. But the best plan for use in the high school, as the Harvard Committee says, must be one effective with *all* youth. As one goes down the scale of educability from this upper 10 or 15 percent of most able youth which is seemingly always in the mind of the Harvard Committee, the need for relating the learning situation used by the school to the use-situation in life where we want the learning to affect conduct becomes more and more

essential. The schools have long recognized this in vocational education. The military services in their schools for "non-coms" and enlisted men, where they were dealing with the same relatively unselected groups of youth as is the modern high school, recognized it and simulated combat (i.e., life) situations throughout the training periods. Knowledge from all fields as such was used when and as needed to show how, what, and why this learning was necessary. Youth learns to be a good citizen by the same processes by which he becomes a good soldier or worker. When we are as interested and sensible in our efforts to produce through education socially minded citizens and intelligent consumers and managers of natural resources as we are in our efforts to produce fighters and workers, we shall apply to the organization of our general education program in high school the principles of learning and of curricular organization we have found to be effective in the vocational and military fields. The result will be a "plan" basically different from what the Harvard Committee suggests. It will instead more nearly resemble in content and organization what the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association presented in 1944 in *Education for All American Youth* as the "common learnings" program of the high school. President Conant has subsequently recognized the essential soundness of this "common learning" program. A basic principle underlying the "common learnings" program proposed by the Educational Policies Commission is "that practice [by pupils] in successfully meeting the problems of each stage of life is the surest way to develop the ability to meet the problems of the stages ahead."

Many high school educators have concluded, as a result of their experi-

ence in teaching unselected groups of high school boys and girls, that though the teaching of subjects as such may still have a place in the elective, differentiated elements of the high school course of study, further effort along the line proposed by the Educational Policies Commission is the most promising solution to the problem of providing effective general education. Trends in the last decade in curricular theory and innovations in practice lead in this direction. High schools that have made the greatest changes in their instructional programs in their effort to prepare youth for responsible living have generally moved in the direction suggested by the report of the Educational Policies Commission. In 1934, Dean Spaulding in *High School and Life* a volume in the Regents Inquiry Series, wrote, "If a school cannot provide effective training in citizenship and at the same time supply a full program of academic work, it may well sacrifice those academic subjects which seem to be offering least educational return to its pupils in general."

The current issue is not therefore, which of the conventional areas of knowledge and how much of each shall make up the program of general education at the high school level, as the Harvard Report would lead us to believe. It is, instead, a question of how to *organize* this program of "common learnings" aimed at making youth competent to carry on the activities of responsible citizens; how to *administer* it is a part of the school's daily program; and how to *reeducate* teachers in its techniques. Quoting Dean Spaulding in the above source still further,

... high schools are not now making the contribution to pupils' social competence which they might make chiefly because they do not address themselves directly or systematically to that goal The traditional program is even now being modified to great advantage in individual schools Of more importance than

new invention, however, is the adoption by schools in general of numerous thoroughly practicable kinds of teaching which have already demonstrated their value.

The further improvement of these promising modifications in the high school; the création of better understanding of them by both the profession and the laymen; the more general acquaintance of teachers in training

and in service with this practical kind of teaching; and the more rapid spread of these tested innovations among the high schools of America are still—in these post-Harvard Report days—the principal problems to be solved as we perfect a high-school program of general education for responsible living in a free society.

LIBERAL EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO¹

ERNEST C. COLWELL
University of Chicago

MY PRESENCE here this afternoon on this program is a fraud upon you. There can be little doubt that you can make one of two assumptions: either that I am as widely and deeply conversant with the problems of either college or secondary school education as the two previous speakers, or I was put in the anchor position on this program so we might have a stimulating educational dog fight.

Whichever one of the assumptions exists in your mind is doomed to disappointment. I am a freshman in educational administration. I have made no life-long study of it. I make no pretensions, no claims to encyclopedic wisdom in the field.

I do not think I could quarrel with what has been said by the Harvard representative. As he spoke, I felt very much like a small boy who has been jumped by the neighborhood gang, who looks up and sees his big brother coming around the corner. I hesitate to embarrass him by welcoming him to the uncomfortable seat in the parlor which we have been occupying for the last sixteen or eighteen years, but if I were to comment upon his speech, all I could say is, "Me too."

Only one aspect of it seemed to me to offer such a belligerent an individual as I am the opportunity for dispute and that was the solidity, the emphatic way in which general education dropped at the end of the sophomore year! I do know, however, that Mr. Wright

and I can differ in that regard. I would be willing to debate with him whether elementary grammar school education needs more than six years, but neither personally nor institutionally do I have any attachment to a sophomore year.

I have one observation to make in the area of my greatest ignorance before this group and that is the secondary school problem. It is not given to us, it seems to me, to make the decision for the American people as to how much general education they will demand for their offspring. We may influence their judgment; we may contribute intelligent information in the direction of its discussion, but it is conceivable that the flood of education of this country will move from high school into the college, at least through the level of the junior college, in increasing volume in the years that are ahead of us.

If that is to happen, one of the practical problems on which we do not yet know enough is how to correlate the curriculum of general education in high school and college effectively so that the end which the previous speakers have discussed may be effectively served; and another is to find some way of making the movement from institution to institution significantly reliable in terms of educational measurement, so that the movement from one level to another one, from one type of institution to another, may be pursued to the student's maximum advantage. The University of Chicago is experimenting with one type of answer to these problems. We need, I think, much more extensive and varied ex-

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perimentations in this country before we shall know the answer that we can with any unanimity recommend to the generations ahead of us.

All that I have to say in generalities about general education has already been said, and well said, with one possible exception, but I would like to repeat some of the points on which I agree, I believe, with the previous speakers. In the first place, I agree with the paramount importance of general education for the youth of America. I do not believe that it is more important or less important than preparation for earning a living. I believe that those two obligations rest upon the mature society in every generation; that they are equal obligations; and that we shall neglect either of them to our regret.

The education at the University of Chicago about which I was asked to speak is primarily concerned with general education rather than vocational except at the higher levels, for I would not pretend to deceive you of the education of an advanced nature in our university which is as truly vocational as anything done in instruction labeled "vocational." It seems to me that the problem lies in the area in which the last speaker placed our biggest problem, basically a problem of organization. It is not the adjustment of provincial claims by various subject disciplines. The basic problem is how this can all be put together so as to make general education. This is of course, a truism. It is a trite statement. There is nothing novel about it, but I would like to read you a parable out of the university administrative book, giving you a real live solution for this particular problem.

The problem was stated by one of the critics of the Harvard Report, the problem of how reason, science, and faith get together effectively in educa-

tion. I believe that the answer by Professor Demus adequately dealt with at least part of that problem in its theoretical formulation, but let me suggest to you some of the practical aspects of that problem.

The great fact in modern education is science. It seems to me it would be nothing but ignorance for us to question the impact of that fact upon the life and thinking and imagination of our people. No other discipline can compete with science. Science has become what it is, so it so proudly asserts, through the careful use of experimental method and specialization of studies. The problem, therefore, of general education is, to a large degree, how can we maintain the significance of scientific education and at the same time bring it into some effective correlation with the humanities and social studies. The nature of that difficulty for the educational administrator can be phrased in a series of assertions, any one of which knocks the other or is knocked by it. The first is that it is certainly possible for the fidelities of science to attain greater degree of objectivity than is attainable in the humanities and social sciences. It follows that questions of appraisal of the quality of factual or significant research are much more easily, much more unanimously answered in the field of the natural sciences than they are in any other field.

If there be no counter-balancing principle, support will flow toward the natural sciences at a growth much faster than it will flow toward the support of work in the humanities or social sciences. I believe that the basic problem, to be trite once more, is how, in our educational institutions, we shall organize various influences so there is some coherency, some unity in the educational scheme, so that the great results of science may be beneficially

applied to both personal and social experience. I do not believe that we can do this by repudiating specialization as such.

It is conceivable that atomic energy will be a boon to our children. It is the direct result of specialization. I do believe we need clear thinking as to the limits and values of specialization. So long as we believe in democracy and the responsibility of the people for a government, we can never admit that government is a specialization. It is part of our obligation to prepare youth for broad participation, for whatever problem the next generation has to face in regard to government. Specialization will surely continue in education. You know the subjects of recognized specializations better than I do. I love the sound of some of them. Otolaryngology is mouth-filling, and these specializations are going to continue. We are going to have eye, ear, nose and throat doctors; we are going to have not just physicists, but nuclear physicists. All these specializations are going to continue and none of us really is arguing for their elimination this afternoon; but I would like to suggest that they will ever be the problem in regard to general education because of the tremendous prestige created by specialization and the needs which their advocates find for a lengthy preparation for that specialization.

The division between the upper years of the conventional college and the lower years was not the result of some administrator's love of neatness. It was an attempt to save part of the college program for general interests as against the insatiable appetite of specialization. This I do not need to argue about. Those of you who have struggled with curricula in college are aware of this or will become aware of it. But it is real, and we are talking about real

pressures for the ends that I think are pretty clearly understood, both by the specialist and those who differ with him.

Certain steps have been taken at the University of Chicago in the effort to establish education as one institution can do it according to its resources. The first of these steps was the establishment of general courses. Superficially is the threat of the general course, but one sees superficiality in the general course at one extreme and intensive specialization at the other. How can one have general courses and avoid this superficiality? One cannot have it if the ideal is comprehensive in the rigorous meaning of the term. I learned this early in life by trying to teach courses in English literature in which we covered every author and every writing that was ever composed or ever heard of in two courses. I am happy to say that the institution has since abandoned that course. Those of you who have struggled with the all-inclusive general course know, I think, that it cannot be handled without its being superficial, but this means if one has general courses one is going to have a principle of selectivity. If we assume that in discussing whether or not we shall have survey or general courses, or on the other hand special courses, the alternatives are sharply defined as selection on one side and inclusion of everything on the other. It is certainly true that the situation on our campus has moved toward selection from an early stage in the development of these general courses and that the effort to get enough coverage at the same time has led to the extension of the general courses: instead of a one-year block survey in one of the sciences, the faculty plans a three-year course in the natural sciences; instead of a one-year block survey in social sciences, it now plans a three-year curriculum in

the social sciences. It believes that by extending necessary general courses, it will be able to gain depth on the one hand without losing breadth on the other.

A second happening on our campus has been the abandonment of course credit and the attempt instead to use examinations as a means of appraising the progress of the student's education. I believe that this is significant for general education. I believe it is significant because it demands attention to the goals of the course. The faculty has ultimately to make the examinations. It is a visionary dream of the professorial imagination that it is possible to vote the use of examinations in place of course credit and then hire experts to make the examinations and take all that load off the shoulders of the professor.

Our experience indicates that unless the professors work on examinations, there are no examinations. But the first question the technician asks of the instructional staff is: What is it that you are trying to give to the student? This I suggest, is a healthy routine in educational institutions and the use of examinations supports it.

There is a second value to the use of the examinations in general education. It breaks the closed circuit between teacher and student in the usual isolated course unit. A visiting professor said to me this morning, "One of my great pleasures in visiting this campus is the fact that I cannot intimidate the students in any way in reference to the grades they will make in the course I am teaching." The use of comprehensive examinations takes the whip out of the professor's hands. I believe his hands can be used to more effective purpose than wielding that instrument.

There is a sanity and a healthiness that comes into this. The use of an educational staff instead of an indi-

vidual on a particular course has meant the enrichment of the courses through the pooling of judgments and of criticism in the construction of the course and in its administration. There is, in general education, no American Medical Association to say, "These are the standards of efficiency for your graduates." It is therefore of incalculable importance for educational institutions to have in those areas as effective measurements as can possibly be devised.

A further recent extensive development on our campus has been the use of place examinations. This is an effort to solve one of the problems to which I referred at the beginning of my remarks. There is an attempt to set the level of achievement and the knowledge at which a particular course or a particular curriculum begins. This is a problem that everyone here is familiar with. It is one of our oldest problems and one of our toughest ones.

I started teaching English composition along with a fair number of those present, I may guess. The veteran instructor who initiated me into the noble profession of teaching carefully explained there were two textbooks in freshman English composition. This was many years ago. He said, "One of these is designed to make clear where a sentence ends, and by what marks its termination may be distinguished; the other is designed to stimulate constructive writing. Every year," he said, "we have less of the writing and more of the sentence." So what do we now do? We revise the course and start lower down every year. Thus were we, in that institution, continually revising the content of freshman courses in the effort to reach the student at the level at which he came to us.

This kind of fluidity exists on all margins of our educational institutions. It is the hope of our college faculty that the use of placement examinations,—

and there is enough wisdom among us to devise an effective instrument,—will make it possible to accept a student without tremendous amount of concern as to the formal education he has had before he comes to us and still place him at the level at which he stands in the sequence of curriculums or courses that exists upon the campus.

I have told you of some of the movements that have taken place at Chicago. I am amazed at the radicalism of Harvard. I am not solaced, my apprehensions are not diminished by the statement of the speaker that this is going to be started gradually at Harvard; that maybe five or six years would pass before this program will be in full swing. The establishment of a program such as that outlined in the Harvard Report on the Harvard campus within six years would be the most expeditious job of educational reorganization ever achieved in an American institution! I am presumed by many of you to be the representative of a rather radical and rapid-moving institution. It was in 1930 that the pattern of colleges and institutions was established on our campus. We drafted divisional studies leading to a master's degree. Making possible such a program was one of the major reasons for the adoption of division organization in our institution. We have moved slowly and painfully in the direction of a plan announced a long time ago.

I would like to emphasize the general direction of some of those movements. The first one was toward autonomy for the college. The college faculty which has jurisdiction over a program of general education long ago was legally established as a separate ruling body in the university. It is a distinct faculty. It has only recently come to control its own degrees, if indeed that happy moment can be said to have fully arrived yet, but the movement

has certainly been through these years in the direction of implementing a legal, autonomous, independent, consistent, college faculty on the campus of the university and the increasing transfer to that particular faculty of responsibility for planning programs of general education. In an institution in which the forces of specialization and research are as strong and distinguished as they are upon our campus, such a differentiation seems to be not only desirable, but inevitable.

In the second place, I would call to your attention the increase in the scope of the general courses. So far has the college faculty been from reducing general courses, that it has moved in the opposite direction. There is an increase in the curriculum, longer general courses, and the natural changes in the curricula are the requirements of additional comprehensive examinations in such subjects as mathematics and foreign languages, so the situation today, if you look back over fifteen years indicates a higher degree of prescription but the prescription now lies at the point where the trend is; namely, that the student should be able to pass the examination. The question of where he begins is determined by a measurement. He has freedom, but he is increasingly and vigorously brought up against the college's concept of an excellent program of general education and measure by that. I need not say again what this means.

In the third place there is a decrease in the importance of the level at which the student comes in, in terms of preliminary formal education.

I would like to say one other thing. Our situation in regard to specialization, I think, is somewhat different from that of Harvard, but we are talking about two different colleges. They are talking about a college which includes the first two years of our divi-

sion and we are talking about a college that includes the upper years of high school. In our circumstances, as we are organized, specialization begins under the control of distinct faculties at the end of the conventional sophomore year in college. But what is happening in many of these areas is exceedingly interesting. I may give you one or two examples of it. It is not without significance for general education.

In the division of biological science, no matter what the department of specialization may be, a student who works toward the degree of master of science must be generally educated in biology. In this connection a curriculum is being worked out that will push him through all the disciplines of the division. This was done some years ago by the division of the social sciences, which in many respects has been the most advanced of all of our divisional faculties. The department of physics has decided that only the best teachers can teach the basic courses. It is prescribing a block of examinations for the master's degree which is regarded as a comprehensive examination in physics. If a student passes that examination and distinguishes himself, if he can find a subject for investigation and a professor to be his sponsor, he may go on to a Ph.D. degree. Having passed the basic examinations in

physics with distinction, he shall report and defend the results of his study.

I believe this marks preliminary progress and that it puts the upper level of the conventional college on a new and broadened responsibility that has significance for general education. It is interesting that this radical department of physics will not let one professor teach the same basic course for two consecutive years. These basic courses belong to the department, not to the individual professor. They are to be outlined by the department and taught in rotation by competent instructors.

In general, what is happening in the areas of specialization at the University of Chicago? There is an increasing correlation with a program of general education. Like many other things on our campus, it is spotty. Although we are cooperating in such a pooling of experience, no one of us, I assure you, has all the answers. No one of us really has seen the inevitable truth anticipated in the next generation. I believe the next generation will be levelled before us by such cooperative report, criticism, appraisal, and planning as is here being pleaded for. It was in the hope that what I have now said might make you strive toward that objective that I came this afternoon.

WHAT INDUSTRY EXPECTS FROM EDUCATION¹

LEVERETT S. LYON

Chicago Association of Commerce

A NEW ENGLAND farmer was once, driving to town with three crates of live chickens piled in the back of his truck. Half way in, he met one of his neighbors returning from town. In the back of his truck three empty chicken crates were piled. Said the farmer going in, "I see you've been to town to sell your chickens."

"Yep."

"Well, how did you come out? What did you get for them?"

"Well," replied the first farmer, "not as much as I expected, but then—I didn't expect I would."

Lest there be any such ambiguity regarding the word "expected" in the subject "What Industry Expects from Education," I am interpreting the topic to mean not what industry necessarily expects, nor even what it wants, but what, in my view, it needs.

There are three things which industry needs for educational institutions. One is competence in the techniques currently used by industry. A second is personnel trained to organize and manage various forms of economic activity. A third is education to render meaningful, to those engaged in them, the vocational activities of life.

Industrial life has always needed such training. Indeed, the race could not survive if each succeeding generation were not taught the skills necessary to making a living, nor could a society hold together if these skills were not, in general, performed in conformity with the prevailing social concepts of right. Anthropologists report

no group that does not school its younger members in such practical matters as war, work, and propitiation, by instruction in techniques and in the implication of these as they are understood and defined in tribal traditions, customs, and taboos.

The Greeks were not unaware of the importance of the practical and social significance of training for industry. Both Plato and Aristotle, particularly the former, consistent with the idea common at the time, that life was a set of relationships between the individual and the state, taught the desirability of training that should make each man "a guardian citizen of the state." Plato especially deplored what he felt to be a decline of such training. In Sparta, where boys were trained for war and girls to become the mothers of warriors, the theory of training for vocational citizenship went far in practice.

Mediaeval English apprenticeship well illustrates a form of *semi-formal* education for industrial life in which all the requirements were met, and met satisfactorily, when making a living was an unscientific, small scale, unspecialized undertaking in which one was concerned with the demands of a local market and the requirements of a small social group. The apprentice, closely associated with the master, living often in his home, making goods by a system of handicraft and usually only for a small group of fellow-townsmen, learned not only the techniques of the trade, but the responsibilities of management, the methods of buying and selling, and the requirements of custom, good form, and municipal law

¹ Delivered before a joint meeting of the three Commissions, Thursday, March 28, 1946, in Chicago.

by which he was regulated. He learned not only how to do, but how to manage, and, quite as important, he became aware of the cultural and legal setting in which his craft was carried on.

The situation in which we now find ourselves differs not as to purposes, but as to methods. We have transferred training for industry from a *direct* to an *indirect* process. While the training for industrial life among simpler groups and in our own simpler days was immediately *associated with work*, the case is now reversed. More and more we are making training for industrial life a *matter of the schools*. Industry itself plays a part, but a small and probably a diminishing part. The formal school method is to make preparation for life work *preliminary* to life work itself.

It is only during the last generation or two that formal school education has acquired this consequence in preparation for industrial life. This is true even in the professions. While training for the ministry has been long a specialized task—somewhat perhaps as training for the supernatural work of the medicine man in primitive groups was somewhat different from the training for ordinary affairs—the education of lawyers, dentists, doctors, and technicians (we now call them engineers) was formerly effected chiefly by association with older professionals in their daily practice. So far as business was concerned, one learned it by “going into a bank” or clerking in a store, or perhaps stepped on the more certain road to a Horatio Algerian success if he could become an office boy or a messenger.

It was the changes ushered in by the industrial revolution that forced education for living-making largely out of the realm of imitation and precept and into a *school curriculum*. It was the changes of those events which made it a formal matter of education,

largely extraneous and preliminary to vocational practice.

While we must not overlook the public elementary schools, since reading and writing are clearly enough vocational subjects, the first formal educational institution which developed in the United States to train for industry began its growth in the eighteen twenties. This was the private business college. The history of its development is intimately related to the industrial changes of the period. The demand for clerical training throughout the nineteenth century was tremendous and expanded with almost unbelievable speed. The original territory of the colonies was doubled by the Louisiana purchase, and by 1853, with the addition of Florida, Texas, and the Oregon claim, the Mexican cession, and the Gadsden purchase, had doubled again. Between 1820 and 1850 the population of nine new Western states in the Mississippi Valley had increased more than 300 percent, creating for Eastern manufacturers a market which had been undreamed of before. In reaching this market with the newly developed factory products there was a demand for all the facilitating processes of business. Letters must be written, transactions recorded, reports rendered, calculations of numerous sorts made, estimates and proposals computed and presented. This work did not demand great intelligence, enterprise, or initiative, but it required accuracy and exactness in the performance of clerical tasks; it required *communication* on an unprecedented scale. In response to the demand for such work there evolved the itinerant penmen, and penman, less itinerant, developed into business colleges. The business college, in some instances at least, became the chain, the most famous of which was that of Bryant and Stratton, founded in 1853.

All of this development was tre-

mendously stimulated by inventions, in turn stimulated by opportunity. In 1820 came what may be called the modern steel pen; in the thirties and forties several systems of stenography, an art known to the Greeks, came into extensive use. In 1875 came the type-writer.

Until approximately 1890 the private business college *was*, in the non-manufacturing side of business, the only formal institution concerned with training for industrial life. And note! It was concerned with *techniques* and techniques alone. With minor exceptions, it has no other purpose now.

On the production or manufacturing side of training for business life a not dissimilar development took place. The first engineering school, afterwards called the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, was opened at Troy, New York, in 1825. The founder stated the aim of his new school to be instruction of persons "in the application of science to the common purposes of life." Before this event there seems to have been no conception of engineering as a profession in any part of the United States. Such engineering work as was done was performed by men trained at West Point and in foreign schools, or in the school of personal experience.

No other similar institution appeared until 1847 when Yale set up a School of Applied Sciences and Harvard established the Lawrence Scientific School. The great impulse to technical education at the collegiate level came when the federal government passed the famous Morrill Act in 1862 on the financial basis of which a great number of institutions now aid in financing engineering education.

While the best engineering schools at the collegiate level realize that their courses lack breadth and social interpretation and while their curricula often include a brief course or two in

economics or business management, they remain essentially institutions to train in the technique of applying the physical sciences to practical ends. They are, in other words, in terms of this discussion essentially contributors—great contributors—to training in the techniques needed by industry. While business management skills often develop in technically trained men, the *teaching* of business management is of minor interest to technical schools. In terms of the third need of industry, the interpretation of economic life, their contribution is negligible.

Late in the nineteenth century, American educators became interested in technical training in the public schools, chiefly in the form of so-called manual training, and by 1900 manual training was winning a substantial position in these institutions. Contrary to the originators' concept of this work as an element of cultural training, manual training was soon regarded as a means of industrial education and a reply to the criticism coming from industry that the schools were too much concerned with imitating the colleges and preparing students for them. Thus this training also took essentially a technical turn, but one much too amateurish to be of real significance to industry even in the technical field.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 making available federal funds in support of industrial education in the public schools enormously expanded this type of training for industry. A thoughtful student of this field of work Dr. Harlow S. Person, gives this appraisal of its contribution: "Whether the nature of the instruction in industrial education meets the problem of adjustment is questionable. The growing opinion is that instruction in the details of trade technique is a responsibility which industry must organize, and that the schools must concentrate on

discovery and development of aptitudes and attitudes, on a broad training in the arts and sciences underlying trade techniques and on industrial economics and citizenship." Here again it is clear that the emphasis is on training for technique, a training perhaps misplaced and inadequately done.

A second agency concerned with training for industrial life also came into existence as a result of the popular demand for modification of the classical education with which the high school was imitating the classical college. This was the commercial curriculum in the secondary schools. It is not strange that the demand for high school curriculum reform should include a cry for such "practical training" as the business college was supposed to offer. But it is unfortunate that there was no educational leadership to breathe breadth and understanding into this new work; an understanding of American economic life which would have justified this new work in terms of the principles which justify education at public expense.

While some commercial courses were introduced into the high schools as early as the sixties, it was following 1890 that their great development took place. The secondary schools copied the narrow technical curricula of the business colleges and, for the most part, drew their teachers from the same sources. They expanded their enrollment of commercial students in the twenty-five years following 1893 by something more than 1,700 percent. They continue to enroll a great army of students in these courses, and have made comparatively little progress in converting them into anything greatly different from the clerk mills which they were at the beginning.

Thus the high school commercial courses also contribute primarily to

one and only one of the needs of industry. Their contribution, like that, of the business college, is essentially so far as any special training for industry is concerned, a contribution of facilitating recording and communication techniques.

Here,—that is, in the secondary schools—is a most striking example of an educational institution which could make a vastly greater contribution to industry, in terms of what I have stated to be industry's third need. The theme cannot be developed here, but I hope you will reflect upon it.

With the rise of the collegiate school of business something new appeared. This was education for management. Following the establishment of the first of these schools, the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1881, no other was founded until 1898, in which year both the University of California and the University of Chicago announced schools of commerce. The real growth of these institutions, however, followed 1915. They are now a part of a majority of American universities.

These institutions have directed themselves primarily to teaching the concepts and procedures needed for the general direction of a business and the specific phases of management such as the administration of finance, sales, purchasing, production, and personnel, or the technical aids of management such as accounting and statistics.

The value of management training, both to individual concerns and to the industrial life of the nation, can hardly be exaggerated. While all human societies have found it necessary to allocate their resources to various uses and convert them into goods and services for their preservation and the gratification of their wants, the events immediately preceding and concurrent with the industrial revolution, in Western

civilization placed the central responsibility for this work upon individuals who are self nominated for the task. The rise of this system was the rise of private enterprise, a system which puts in the hands of individuals the organizing of production, decisions as to the wise use of resources, and responsibility for technical progress.

Under this condition of affairs, it is of the utmost social importance that our business organizers shall be as competent and as efficient as it is possible to have them. As competition is our method of selection, we can secure no better organizers than the best of those who present themselves for the race of business success.

In this field industry needs much from formal educational institutions. It becomes increasingly difficult to learn how to operate a business merely by working in it. What goes on in manufacturing, for example, may involve the complexities of an elaborate science and be embodied in machines and processes which disclose nothing to external examination. As important is the fact that industries rely on sales and purchases in a world market. This process cannot be seen, as in the craftsman's shop. An introduction to the processes of trade, to buying and selling customs, and to the governing law and other regulations is proper subject matter for formal education, as is an explanation of business finance and financial institutions.

These four institutions, the business college, the commercial and technical courses of the public schools, the technical colleges, and the collegiate schools of business, are the only institutions, outside of those in industry itself, which have undertaken to offer formal training for industrial life. True, some work designed to train for industry is offered in evening schools, cooperative schools, continuation schools, and

junior colleges, but such work represents only various adaptations in time or method. They add nothing to the types or content already discussed.

It is clear, therefore, that the third contribution which industry should have from education is largely lacking. This contribution is to render meaningful, to those engaged in them, the vocational activities of life.

In a simple society, as has been suggested, no special school is needed to learn the social value and meaning of those acts by which a living is made. In such a society the significance, as well as the methods, are taught in group association—in the doing of the work. But this is not true in our modern economy. The distance between action and its results is too great to make it possible to learn the meaning of work in its performance. The many specialists who contribute to most forms of production each add a part so insignificant that the complete import is seldom apparent in any task. What bank clerk, for example, can readily learn from the routine of his daily tasks the importance of his work or of his bank's work in the formation of capital or of the significance of capital or of the significance of capital to modern methods of production? How is a telegraph operator for a brokerage house to learn, without instruction, to read social meaning into his daily duties? Will the specialized machine tender, working day after day upon a fragment of a product, see, without aid, his tiny task as part of the vast social enterprise of production? Will he see clearly what he is contributing to the useful goods of the world and to the enjoyment or satisfaction or improvement of the men and women in it? How will he come to realize the true significance of higher wages or lower wages, or longer hours or shorter hours, or prices or production, except as they affect him

at the moment and not as they affect the industry of which he is a part or affect the economic system as a whole?

And where among the institutions offering education for industry are these same matters adequately offered to employers, actual or prospective? It is my judgment that they are present in no adequate degree in the curricula of business management. Certainly they are not present in other institutions which offer to train for industry. Without such understanding there cannot be management really equal to these problems and there cannot be, on the part of labor and its leaders, knowledge adequate to aid in preserving the system in which both labor and management believe.

There is implied in the undertaking of formal education for industry the obligation to bring to the growing generation of society an understanding

of the economic significance of vocations and to give to all concerned some sense of common sharing of experience. Sometime it will be discovered that it is in terms of what men do that the ends of life must be evolved and that it is in terms of how they do it that social ethics has significance.

At present the educational system successfully teaches competence in the technical methods used by industry. Specialists are well trained in their particular profession or technical field. Our educational system also makes an important contribution in training personnel to organize and manage individual businesses. The educational system, however, lacks both a program and a method designed to equip business managers to lead in strengthening our economic order and in shaping it to meet the changing needs of society.

WHAT LABOR WANTS FROM EDUCATION¹

CLINTON S. GOLDEN
United Steelworkers of America

It is refreshing to find educators asking about labor's concern in the schools. The traditional view has been that the schools should serve the employer. School boards have usually been dominated by employer interests as naturally as school superintendents join Rotary Club. Back in the days of my boyhood there was a teacher of about sixth grade who put on the board in front of the class to be repeated every morning the brief motto: "Be business-like." To be "businesslike" meant to be ready to fill a bill of specifications laid down by business men whose right to set the standards was never questioned. The justification for introducing most subjects in the curriculum has been the needs of the business world. The three R's were taught, along with habits of neatness, docility, and not watching the clock, because employers sought these qualifications in their ideal clerk. As soon as science became important to industry, science laboratories appeared in the high schools. It is a fact not generally known that even art was introduced into the schools at the demand of employers who found it expensive to rely upon European designers and who wanted to develop some native talent ready to work for less pay. The concept of America as the great land of opportunity where any boy might start out without a cent in his pocket, and by practicing honesty and hard work, rise to be a millionaire and marry the boss' daughter, has been taught by the

schools as well as by Horatio Alger stories. The National Association of Manufacturers still enjoys the patronage of thousands of teachers who present to their classes the pamphlets and charts and films prepared to offer Big Business' interpretation of American life. Teachers who ventured, however, to balance such propaganda by inviting labor speakers or bringing labor papers into the school, found themselves called to the administrator's office for a friendly chat on the wisdom of avoiding "controversial issues" in the public schools.

MOST AMERICANS ARE WORKERS

Yet all the time, the children in your schools came largely from homes of workers—farm workers, industrial workers, or white-collar employees. The owners of industry are few; besides their children are often not sent to public schools. The economic oligarchy has erected a separate system through private boarding schools and exclusive colleges to train their own sons and daughters for privileged places tomorrow.

It is something of a tribute to the achievements of organized labor that leaders in education are now asking whether the schools are doing the kind of job which working people, who make up a great majority of the public, want.

LABOR SUPPORTS EDUCATION

Labor is proud of our American school system. We believe that our nation has the best school system of the modern world, and we have fought time and again at your side against

¹ Delivered before a joint meeting of the three Commissions, Thursday, March 28, 1946, in Chicago.

enemies of public education. Do you remember, about a dozen years ago, when a Chamber of Commerce report proposed to reduce taxes by withdrawing the opportunity for universal free public high schools? No more vigorous protests were heard than those which came from organized labor. We know that our children's chance for happiness depends very much on what the public schools can do for them as individuals and for our society as a whole. That is why we are deeply concerned that the public schools should be better than they are.

At the risk of intruding into your professional domain, I am going to be more specific about this improvement. I shall offer six suggestions which will serve to indicate what labor finds unsatisfactory today and what labor hopes to see in the schools of a not-too-remote tomorrow.

EXTEND EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

First, labor wants to extend educational opportunity in accord with democratic ideals. We are not satisfied with a school system which spends only a third or a fifth as much upon the education of a child, just because he happens to have been born in a poor state. We have fought in the C.I.O. against sectional wage differentials, but sectional educational differentials are even less defensible. We want to throw our whole driving force behind all the Federal Aid that is necessary to insure that a pupil born in Mississippi or Louisiana shall have as good a chance to profit from education as has a pupil born in California or New York.

The inequalities to which labor objects are found within the same state as well as between different states. Some communities, because of lack of resources or lack of vision, lag woefully

behind the rest of the state. Labor will be found ready to back statewide equalization programs and the strengthening of state departments of education, to help up-grade backward school systems.

A special need exists today for making education beyond high school genuinely free. In a democracy there should be no merely *economic* factor selecting the young people who go to colleges and professional schools. Society is interested in getting the *ablest* leaders, regardless of the income of the home from which they come. As a matter of fact, if we could assemble all the brightest children in the United States, three out of four would be found to come from homes of farmers or laborers with modest income. You are familiar, I am sure, with the studies which have shown how class position influences educational opportunity. A typical result was that found by Helen Goetsch in Milwaukee. Among 1,032 high school seniors, all of them with I.Q.'s over 117 and thus capable of college work, those with wealthy parents all planned to go to college. But the equally bright young people from low income groups could not count on college—four out of five had to quit school and go to work. A situation like that is a travesty upon American democratic ideals. The loss falls not only upon those young people themselves but upon our whole society which will never benefit as it might have by the contributions those gifted young people could have been helped to make.

There is an equally grave injustice which rests upon grounds of race rather than economics. It is a denial of all that American democracy ought to mean, when Negro schools in some states get only a tenth the per capita expenditure allotted to schools for white children. It is a disgrace that able

Negro students and Jewish students are barred from many of our Northern colleges and graduate schools, on grounds that have nothing whatever to do with their competence or society's need for their trained service. The labor movement is a powerful endeavor to express some of the aspirations of democracy. You will not find us tolerant of the open or disguised practices by which prejudices are perpetuated and the opportunities for higher education are limited by snobish or Hitlerian conceptions. As the influence and strength of organized labor increases, the demand is going to be heard that all education, from nursery school through the most advanced levels, shall serve all the children of all the people, with no economic or racial discrimination!

EXTEND DEMOCRATIC CONTROL

The second concern of labor is that the organization and control of education shall represent the whole community—not merely the upper crust. This means more than having show-window representation—say, . one spokesman for labor on a board of nine. We mean that in a city in which four out of five children come from working class homes, we are not going to be satisfied with less than a similar proportion of school board members from that section of the community. The common notion that a lumber dealer, a hardware merchant, a lawyer, a dentist, and the wife of a retired business man can best interpret the real aspirations of the working people is not in accord with our experience. Public opinion polls repeatedly show that as Harold Laski puts it, "people who live differently think differently." Organized labor has had from the outset to battle well-meaning employers who took the patronizing attitude that they knew better what was good for

labor than the labor leaders did. We do not accept the principle of *noblesse oblige* in education any more than we do in collective bargaining. I recognize that there are able, conscientious school board members who do not come from the working class, and that some who do do not always do us credit but the principle holds. In the long run we shall do better for ourselves than anyone else will do for us.

What has been said about members of the governing board applies also to the workers employed by them—the teachers. In labor's view a strong union of teachers is an essential element in preserving the freedom of teaching which a democracy needs. We know from long and bitter experience how easy it is for the boss to intimidate the unorganized worker. A teachers' union does not mean a one-sided, pro-labor treatment of controversial issues. The union is not a distortion of the professional ideals of the teacher but an important aid in defense of such ideals. One of the main services of the union is the liberation of teachers from fear that prevents them from putting into practice the ideals that are talked about in this and similar conventions. The union is a safeguard for sincerity—an indispensable quality in democratic education.

Let me add a special word to the many of you who are administrators of schools and colleges. Perhaps you have been troubled at the thought of your teachers organized in a union. You envisioned trouble. Here is another way of looking at the matter. Are there not many educational ideals which you would like to attain but haven't? Have you not sometimes hesitated to make a progressive move because there was opposition from certain conservative sections of your board or your community? Wouldn't a teachers' union, taking a strong

unified stand in favor of such changes, greatly strengthen your hand? You know how well organized the reactionaries are and how they can turn on the heat. Wouldn't it be helpful to you in your endeavor to stand up for educational values in the face of such pressures if there were an equally strong and well-organized group of teachers counteracting the forces you would like to resist? I should think a school administrator might find it much easier to fight successfully for the cause of democratic education if he could count on pressures from his organized teachers to offset any reactionary pressures from inside or outside the school system.

DEAL HONESTLY WITH ALL SIDES OF CURRENT ISSUES

We spoke a moment ago about controversial issues, and that suggests the third plea I want to make. Labor expects an education that deals realistically and honestly with current issues. Labor does not ask that you weigh the scales unfairly on our behalf. We ask only for a chance to have our side of the story fairly considered. Labor's case is too strong to need bolstering by censorship or propaganda. The facts are sufficient. But we find that those facts are not always presented. Some schools shy away from controversial issues entirely. Others study them out of unfriendly publications like *Time* or the *Reader's Digest*—and fail to supplement these sources with the *C.I.O. News* or such a factual research publication as the *Economic Outlook*. Our office will be glad to send you a sample copy of these and other materials if you haven't seen them. Let me say again, labor is not asking that you present our side only. We do think it fair that ours should be included.

The teaching of American history and world history illustrates the bias of the present curriculum. Thanks to

Charles Beard and James Harvey Robinson, history has come to include economic life along with kings and battles. Pupils learn about Eli Whitney and John Jacob Astor, Cornelius Vanderbilt, James J. Hill, Andrew Carnegie, Daniel Drew, John D. Rockefeller, and Henry Ford. But what school teaches the story of those heroic men and women who gave their lives not to make money but to helping their fellow workers organize for better standards of living and more democratic operation of industry? Do your students know William H. Sylvis, whom John R. Commons calls "the first great figure in the American labor movement?" Do they learn of Thomas Phillips, the shoemaker who started the first Rochdale-type cooperative in America? Do your girls thrill to the heroism of Mother Jones who defied the lawless tyrants of the coal mines in Pennsylvania and in Colorado? Do they know Terence V. Powderly, as well as his less dramatic successor, Samuel Gompers? Could they discuss intelligently the important differences in philosophy of labor organization among such leaders as Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, and Daniel DeLeon? Do they know the folksongs of labor: "Solidarity Forever," "We Shall Not Be Moved," "Joe Hill?"

When pupils study England or Germany or France or China or Mexico, do they learn anything about the development of the labor movement in these countries? Now that the Tory sun has set, isn't it high time that pupils became more intelligent about the origins and leadership of the labor parties which bid fair to govern most of the earth during the years ahead?

TRAIN SKILLS OF DEMOCRATIC ACTION

The sins of omission could be listed at great length, but I turn now to my fourth suggestion—the fostering in pu-

pils of the skills of democratic participation. Back in pioneer days the kind of cooperation Americans needed was limited. A few families living near one another needed to be good neighbors and ready to lend a hand in time of emergency. For the best part, each individual was free to get ahead as best he could on his own. That view still prevails in many colleges and schools. Each individual is supposed to work primarily alone, but from time to time the students cooperate in an orchestra or a cheering section. Such experience fails to prepare men and women for democratic collective action. The wonder is not that political parties, labor unions, business associations, professional societies, clubs and churches occasionally fall into control by bosses or cliques; the wonder is that democratic participation is ever achieved by people who have had so little training in it. Surely it is not unreasonable to expect the schools to produce graduates all of whom know how to chair a meeting, how to keep minutes, how to introduce motions and amend them, and how to block schemes of manipulation. It is not enough for pupils to know all this in theory—they should emerge from school and college, veterans with plenty of experience in battling for democracy. They should be accustomed to running the affairs of organizations, large and small. If there is ever any sound basis for withholding a graduation diploma, it would seem to me that you would be justified in regarding as deficient the young man or woman who has shown no active interest to participate in the control of matters that affect him. Such immaturity, dependence and irresponsibility seem to me far more dangerous to democracy than would be any limitations in the student's knowledge of Latin or geometry.

I do not suppose that techniques of democratic participation can be taught

by teachers who live in ivory towers. If pupils are to become skillful in collective planning and collective action, then those who coach them—the teachers—must be old hands at the game. That is another reason for supporting teacher unions. But it is also a reason for expecting teachers to take an active role in organizations outside of schools. Too many communities still look askance at teacher participation in politics and place a premium on teachers remaining aloof from the struggles which go on constantly in every community to keep effective democratic control within the Grange or the cooperative or the Kiwanis or the industrial council or the trades council or the Congregational church or the Community Welfare Society. These are the laboratories and gymnasiums of the democratic technique. A teacher who fails to be an intelligent participant in the social action of his profession, his community, state, and nation, disqualifies himself for that primary responsibility of education—the development of good citizens.

It is well enough to applaud such ideas in speeches and resolutions, but we in the labor movement should like to see you a little more realistic. How about your salary schedules? Do they give material recognition to those teachers who take a more active part in community political life? Administrators who proclaim a belief in training pupils for practical democracy, but who have made no effort to give increased pay to those teachers who do join in democratic social action, seem open to the charge of serving "talk democracy" instead of "do democracy."

EDUCATION FOR WORK

The fifth suggestion bears on an aspect of modern school curriculum which is of special concern to labor.

That is the program of vocational education. All that we have emphasized before—the need for more equal opportunity, for more democratic control, for more honest treatment of current issues, and for better training in the skills of cooperative action—bears on the school program of education for work. Every shop steward knows that difficulty in getting on with fellow-workers causes more trouble than does lack of some special technical skill. What labor expects is a vocational education program that is as broad as work, which means nearly as broad as life. From our point of view, your vocational education is much too narrow. Not one child in a hundred has made his vocational choice after a fair review of all the scores of jobs in which he might have done about equally well. Vocational training usually fails to give the worker a grasp of the economics of his industry—he doesn't know the factors that determine its booms and declines. Vocational education fails, as we have indicated, to regard personality limitations as quite as serious as lack of knowledge of some trade terms, yet the technical information can be easily acquired while the cooperative personality is a slow growth. If you haven't time for everything, leave some of the technical matters to be picked up on the job and concentrate the efforts of your expert pedagogues on transforming the grouchy, opinionated, narrow, selfish, bitter, jealous, irascible, and uncooperative characters into personalities better fitted to work harmoniously with their fellows in shops and stores and offices and in unions.

Some of you argue that a classical education lays the foundation for best human relations. Some of you put your trust in student activities. Others make extensive use of psychological services. Fortunately, it is not my job to answer for you the question of the

comparative efficacy of these various methods. The recommendation from labor is that in vocational education you put first things first, and direct your efforts primarily at the quality of person, only secondarily at technical accomplishments. Labor is too practical to be interested merely in the narrowly "practical."

Work experience is becoming, they tell me, an increasingly important part of your curriculum for young people. As labor sees it, this is a wise move. Most people learn more in three months on a new job than they do in three months in a new subject of study at school. We like also the recognition and respect which these new programs give to work as a basic human function. The old education, modelled for an aristocracy, despised work and prided itself on the fact that the knowledge it gave had no practical value whatever. "Sheer culture" it was, suited for ladies and gentlemen of leisure. It is characteristic of the movement away from that outmoded aristocratic education, that work experience is given so much attention today.

There are three safeguards which organized labor suggests in the introduction and expansion of programs of work experience for youth. The first is that any such program must be premised on full employment. Jobs will not be available for youth in school if they are not available for all the older men and women who want to work. Anyone interested in work experience must be concerned to get the legislation—emasculated by the present Congress—which will guarantee continuous provision of jobs for all. Second, the planning of your work experience program in any local community should be carried out in cooperation with organized labor. There are standards built up by long and painful struggle which must not be undermined by a naïve program

of putting students into jobs. There are plenty of employers who will view this program merely as a supply of cheap labor. You will need experienced labor men on your committees to keep the consequences constructive. Third, most jobs today are not so educative as they ought to be. We in the labor movement welcome school work programs as our allies in concern for the human side of the job. It is not enough to fit the person to the job—some of the adjustment must come in the other direction. Recent experiments in the social psychology of industry have shown that these human factors have far more to do with output than the old-fashioned engineers supposed. When workers are viewed merely as cogs in a vast machine, the system is actually less efficient than when they are recognized as persons and given a chance to have some part in planning what is done. This movement is vital to the educational values of work as well as to the satisfaction of the worker. The new interest in making work educative can supplement the long-standing interest of unions in making work more humane.

EDUCATION FOR ONE WORLD

My final point takes us beyond national boundaries. The C.I.O. is a part of the World Federation of Trade Unions, and that international aspect of the labor movement was never more important than it is today. Labor is intensely concerned with the prevention of war. We expect of the schools that they will prepare a generation better fitted for the tasks of world cooperation than were those of us who lived through two World Wars. The schools taught us to desire peace, but they didn't teach us how to pay the price of peace. What they taught us about Fascism was too little and too late. In this year which Professor Urey has called the

first year of the atomic bomb—the year 1 A.B.—we know that adults as well as children have got to learn more and to learn it faster. Labor is well aware that civilization can't survive a war of the kind that another war would be. You don't hear labor leaders talking irresponsibly of a coming Third World War. If any such war comes, there will be no use counting it. Its name will be "Finis."

To prevent that war there are two great tasks, both of them educational. The first is to learn how to get along in a world which is increasingly under communist influence. Russia has become the number two power of the world—a transformation that would have seemed utterly incredible twenty-five years ago. Communist parties exercise tremendous influence in most of Europe and much of Asia. There is no use wishing these facts out of existence. They are there, and we must learn how to live with them. The situation calls for far more intensive study of the Soviet Union than American schools have ever before provided. Most of us will find some features we like and some we dislike. Every Russian child today is required to learn English. They will find in our society some things to approve and some to disapprove. But neither their society nor ours is rigid. We have both shown remarkable capacity for growth and change. This is our hope for peaceful cooperation. But everything depends upon a tremendous effort of education to create mutual understanding rather than self-righteous pig-headedness.

The other educational task is nothing less than preparing Americans, for the first time in their history, to be world citizens. It means making U.N.O not merely acceptable but sovereign. The race today is between making a world organization and the catastrophe of atomic destruction. The timid edu-

cation of the past, with its nationalistic bias in history, geography, and literature, was largely responsible for American isolationism. When labor today asks for a bold aggressive program to prepare every citizen to accept responsibility as a citizen of One World, it is not merely speaking for labor. Labor in this instance, as in many others, speaks for all humanity. In the words of Philip Wylie: "Human brotherhood is

not a dream but man's last passionate necessity. It is as if God were tired of our filthy vanities and obscene wars, as if He had determined to force a choice today, as if He said, 'Here is the fact of your equality; either be honest or strip this earth I gave you as naked as the moon; either trust one another or add yourselves to the incandescent sun; either be wise or die—all of you'."

THE RETURNING VETERAN, HIS SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE—I*

PAUL C. PACKER
State University of Iowa

DIRECTLY or indirectly, each and every citizen of the United States is involved in the confusion following in the wake of the armed conflict which has done so much to undermine our social and economic fabric. In the midst of this present chaos, practically every private and social agency gives, as respects education, jobs, and housing, number one priority to the returning veteran. By and large, this point of view is predicated upon appreciation and obligation for the service the men of the armed services have rendered.

Do such concepts as appreciation and obligation furnish a lasting or sound basis upon which a healthy and durable public attitude of mind can be builded? Certainly, no veteran wishes to be regarded as a public charge. Rather, as I know him, he primarily wants an opportunity to get going in civilian life as promptly as possible. He wants to prepare himself as speedily as may be, again to compete in the work of the world, or he wants a job or position which will permit him quickly to establish a home which for him has been too long delayed; in short, his wants are just what every first-class man desires, a place on society's team that he merits. Even the boys who have lost one or more limbs, or an eye, do not seek sympathy but a chance that pays off in happy and decent living. Everyone who has rubbed elbows with these veterans knows this.

* This is the first paper in a panel series before a joint meeting of the Commission on Research and Service and the Commission on Colleges and Universities, Thursday, March 28, in Chicago. Mr. Packer was chairman of the panel.

I am reminded of a boy at the University who lost an arm in the recent conflict and is at present doing a job that no one believed possible with his handicap, and may I add better than any of his two-armed predecessors. There is no need to further elaborate the point that veterans of this war do not want to rest their future upon the transitory generosity of a grateful public. Rather, they seek to establish themselves in a minimum time in the body politic of the morrow. That we may not lose this fine spirit, it is well for those charged with the responsibilities of their adjustment to ever keep this in mind.

Another public attitude of mind which naturally flowers out of the emphasis on appreciation and obligation to the veteran is that he is a problem. At least, the articles appearing in magazines, newspapers and other communication channels leaves the distinct impression that he is a responsibility that must be taken care of rather than the only sound one, that he is an asset to society. Occasionally this latter note is emphasized. Illustrative of this is a comment by the Director of the Veterans Service Center in Los Angeles. He says, "The returning veteran is a resource not a problem."

G. Millage Montgomery, Assistant Superintendent of the Los Angeles Schools, further points up this idea with the remark, "He, the veteran, may have his own personal problems, but for this community he is rich in potentialities and a factor in our citi-

zenry to be respected." It is unnecessary to labor this point of view, but in the days ahead the degree of success attained in dealing with the returned members of the armed forces rests in large measure upon the public attitude of mind which is developed. If these men are regarded primarily as problems, then the present high interest in them will soon vanish. If, on the other hand, they are considered as a great resource in society, then public interest and effort will be more likely to continue and be more effective over a long period.

The third general issue I want to emphasize is the contribution the returning veteran is making in the educational world. His very arrival on the doorsteps of every secondary or collegiate school in the United States has thrown into high gear the machinery of these institutions. He has put away the toys of his kid days. Driven by his conscious loss of time, he wants and deserves the best without lost motion. Never has advising and counseling and programming of students been carried to such a high level. In short, the veteran's return to school is setting a new style in drive and achievement for the entire student body. If we are wise, we will not let the new impetus go uncanceled. We must take advantage of this unprecedented opportunity to apply to all students the same care and effort that is being afforded the members of the armed forces. If we are successful in so doing, the veteran unconscious to himself will have made one of the marked contributions to the educational system of this period.

In the remaining time at my disposal I want to raise a few questions.

1. Should there be established in larger population concentrations one-stop veterans' service centers where all

bona fide community agencies may pool their services in answering the questions and advising the men of the armed services? No doubt those of you who have been dealing so directly with the veteran have found the answer. My attention has been called to the work of one city where such a program has apparently met with no little success. In 1944, Los Angeles organized its forces in this manner with eleven civic agencies participating. Now there are seventeen with each maintaining personnel at this single center at their own expense. The offices are open from 9:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. During 1945, 65,007 individuals were dealt with and since a considerable number came more than one time the total different services rendered were 221,746. Incidentally, this type of program might have some merit for so-called normal times. I might add just an aside—that the so-called Community Chest paid for the offices of this outfit and made it part of their War Chest.

2. The second question I would like to ask is: should secondary education be extended to include those returning from the armed services who desire to go to school but for whom the college or university is neither equipped nor qualified to serve? I am fully conscious that all schools have done much along this line. The question I am really raising is: should community or area colleges be developed as part of our system of public education? I can't help but stop and add, for example, somewhat after the Denmark setup where they set up fifty-seven residential colleges in that little country and lift a country low in economic status up to one with the highest economic status the world has ever seen. With the present avalanche of demands, the need for some such provision seems obvious. Knowing as we do that millions of stu-

dents finishing high school do not go on to college, the need for wider opportunities would seem quite as important as a regular function of our school system as it would be for the present temporary emergency.

3. What are the educational implications of the acceleration of the migration of our citizenry in the aftermath of the war? The City of Denver reports that "while only 55,000 citizens have seen service during World War II, 105,000 veterans will seek to make this city their future home." It further reported that 60,000 of these 105,000 will be interested in further training. 24,000 of these 60,000 "will seek to refresh skills dimmed through disuse by taking some type of short unit vocational courses. The remaining 36,000 will be interested in receiving a training in occupational fields new to them." Experience in the Denver area indicates that of the 60,000 interested, only 20 percent will actually enroll for work. The breakdown of this 12,000 of the 60,000 that may be expected to enroll indicates that approximately 7,632 will be in trade classes, 3,360 will be in business education classes, and 1,008 in college. Such an analysis as the research division of the Denver Public Schools has made seems particularly pertinent to those cities which are not only receiving their own veterans back but many others. In any event, the cities which are on the heavy receiving end as respects the returning veteran should have much to tell us about the effect of this impact upon their educational systems.

4. How may that element in education not directly involved in preparation for earning a living but so essential to a well ordered society be given emphasis? Specifically, what I am referring to is that overtone in life that qualifies us to participate intelligently

in the general decisions that are to be made which affect community, state, national and international affairs irrespective of whether you are a doctor, lawyer, merchant, farmer, capitalist or laborer. Is it possible to so stage an educational program that large numbers of our people will demand facts upon which to make their decisions rather than be influenced by those who rest their case regardless of merit upon emotional appeal? The returning veteran has had experiences of every sort not only in this country but millions of them in foreign lands. As you well know, even on issues of signal importance to us there is wide difference of opinion among these men.

For instance, one man will have no good word for the people of a given foreign land, while another will speak in most glowing terms of the same people. Like the three blind men and the elephant, each man has touched a different part of the anatomy of a society and come away with a point of view which differs from his fellows. Now I am not suggesting that this should be otherwise but rather that we learn to take a look at the whole elephant and its relationship to ourselves in voicing our convictions. For instance, let us consider the much discussed loan to England, and bear in mind I am neither advocating nor arguing against it. Rather, I want to point out that we should not give our approval or disapproval on the basis of whether we like or dislike the people of this country. We should, on issues of this sort, be interested in one thing only: will this loan hasten economic recovery and all that goes with it both at home and abroad? If it does, make it. If it does not, don't.

Again I raise the question: how can we develop this long run essential quality to make decisions on the basis of

fact instead of prejudice. It seems to me that in the degree we fail in this most difficult of all educational tasks in just that degree our other efforts will be handicapped.

Finally, may I again express the hope that we may all be wise enough to develop a lasting public attitude of mind which will support a program necessary to the demands of the day and the mor-

row both for the veterans and all others. Whatever the losses sustained in the recent conflict may be, and they are great, may we not lose the opportunity given us by the impact of the returning members of the armed forces to do such a good job that the residue of our efforts will serve as lasting foundations for the long pull ahead.

THE RETURNING VETERAN, HIS SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE—II*

T. H. BROAD

*Daniel Webster Senior High School
Tulsa, Oklahoma*

I SHALL confine my remarks strictly to the problems that I have experienced in this connection in senior high school. Before we probably should start thinking about the problems of the veteran in senior high school, we ought to recognize that there still seem to be two schools of thought. Some hold there is no place in high school today for returning veterans. There are others who have taken the opposite point of view. I think the first point of view was somewhat strengthened about a year ago by an article which appeared in one of the leading magazines and which referred to one of our western schools.

I think we have some basic assumptions that we must work on. First, I hold that veterans are entitled to every opportunity for education at the high school level, if they haven't already completed that level. The second assumption is that veterans returning to high school, generally speaking, are boys who were retarded in high school or who were maladjusted and dropped out of school to enter the service. Had they been making normal progress, in all probability they would have graduated before entering the service. The third assumption is that the high school principal has the responsibility for providing advice and guidance and other services to all youth in his community including the educational needs of these veterans.

* This is the second paper in the panel series on the returning veteran. It appears here as an adaptation of the stenotypist's report of Mr. Broad's discussion.

I have fifteen veterans in my high school. Fortunately, none of them are men who were injured in service. Two of them are married. I had a meeting with them recently and raised such questions as these: "What are the biggest problems that you face in attending high school?" What are the things that get in your hair? What is it that bothers you, keeps you awake at night?

The first answer I got was an interesting one: "The thing that burns us up about going back to high school isn't the high school at all; it is the fact that we have been somewhat free financially, and we come back and have to live with the folks." It is no small item for men who have been treated as men.

The next point they mentioned was the family's attitude toward them. The family have forgotten that a boy who was away two or three years, maybe only six months, in that time grew up from a boy to a man. You know how mothers are. They still think of him as the little boy. None of them said that their mothers washed their ears, but it got to be almost that bad in some instances.

Another observation had to do with finances. Two married boys were quite disturbed and a little distressed that they weren't making it on the G. I. allotment. One of our particular problems with those boys has been: Should they, if they plan to go to college, take advantage of the G. I. Bill at the high school level? Or should they, because they find it much cheaper to attend

high school, put off using the benefits of the G. I. Bill until they reach college?

Still another problem the boys mentioned in connection with the high school situation was the adjustment that they had to make to the younger social order. Their first reaction when they come back is "The kids are much smaller than I was in high school. They are so kiddish. They want to play and we want to work."

When they come in, we go into the problem of educational evaluation. That is, we have to get out their records and find out where they are. It is interesting to see how many come back with no idea of how many credits they have. Of course credits constitute a big item with those boys. Did they get credit for work that wasn't completed when they left? How much credit will be given them for schooling in the service?

We are advising the older ones under certain circumstances to go down to the testing office and get the G. E. D. tests upon the assumption that they have acquired some good things that we will never be able to teach them and for which we are willing to give credit.

A careful analysis is necessary with these boys because, as I said in the beginning, our experience is that those who are now back in high school were maladjusted or retarded when they left. Such an analysis of their abilities, interests, and desires shows that a few of them want to become sufficiently academically respectable to go to college, whereas some of them aren't interested at all in doing so. One boy told me the other day that what he was getting in high school wasn't going to help him with what he was going to do when he finished high school. I said, "What do you mean?" "Well," he said, "I am going to barber college."

In his case we had to talk through this business of why he should be interested in studying American democracy, for instance. The boy is already married. Somewhere along the line we had failed to get across to him that there are other things in school than courses that will help him make a living.

These boys have been in situations where they have been treated frankly and honestly in regard to their abilities and inabilities, and they can take it pretty well. So if you say to a boy "Our evidence shows you are a slow learner and you have to dig a little harder, and as a consequence perhaps you shouldn't go to college but direct your energy someplace else" he can take it even better than our normal or regularly enrolled high school kids.

They prefer to be enrolled in classes which are meaningful to them, meaningful in terms of their further educational plans and needs. In this regard I get rather liberal with them. Another thing we should do as high school principals, and we have attempted to do this, is to be sure that the veterans in high school, especially those that are twenty or more are acquainted with the job-training programs and opportunities in our respective localities. There is one more point which I want to stress in closing: I have less of a problem with veterans than I have with some of my teachers in adjusting to them.

There still are some motherly teachers whose interests are in making children what they tried to make out of them twenty-five years ago. They still see some of these boys as problem boys before they went into the service, but they run into a new kind of thing, —an adult attitude in a high school class. That is distressing. Some of these boys have been in the habit, if they wanted a cigarette, to smoke a cigarette. Once or twice we have had

one explode with a bit of profanity. (Evidently, it wasn't the first time the teacher had heard such language because she understood it.) Teachers of this type are bothered by things like that.

We don't hold these veterans for attendance as we do our other kids. Certainly it would be absolutely silly to take a twenty-year old boy and say to him "When you are absent bring us a written note from your mother." He would probably bring it from his wife.

I asked these boys, as I said, what their problems were. But I also asked

this question: "What is it about our situation that you like best?" This comment was made: "Every man on this faculty has treated every one of us in confidence, has treated us like a man." They want to be treated as men and certainly you can appeal to that desire.

In closing I wish to say that these boys resent the inference that any teacher or any other person may draw to the effect that in any case veterans are expecting more than anyone else. Such has been my experience with veterans.

THE RETURNING VETERAN, HIS SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE—III*

HAROLD L. BODA

The Public Schools, Dayton, Ohio

My function, as I understand it, is to discuss this question from the standpoint of the role of the superintendent of schools. I think four years ago every superintendent of schools was faced with the problem of developing educational programs for young men for whom military experience lay ahead, and now every superintendent of schools is faced with the problem of developing educational plans and programs for large numbers of men whose military experiences are in the past.

I think that is very significant for a superintendent of schools because it means that he has now a problem of developing and planning a type of adult education program which has not been common in most school systems. I suppose two-thirds or three-fourths of these veterans are not prepared at the moment to enter college. That certainly means that the public school is the basic educational institution in most communities and therefore must assume along with industry and business a great responsibility for developing these education programs.

There are some figures from my state which indicate that we probably will have about four hundred thousand veterans who have not completed high school and about two hundred thousand of that number are under twenty-five years of age.

May I suggest the three major responsibilities which I think the superintendent of schools must assume in

this kind of a program? First of all, I think he has to recognize that this is a community problem, that his schools are not the only agencies for education in the community, that he must cooperate with and sometimes stimulate other related agencies as well. In our own city, we have had a very fortunate experience, in that a group of business and industrial leaders organized what we call the Dayton District Development Committee. Its sole purpose is to take leadership in postwar planning, including industrial reconversion, housing, veterans, or any other community problems resulting from the war.

The superintendent of schools is chairman of the subcommittee of the Dayton District Development Committee that has to do with veterans. That subcommittee has been responsible for coordinating the development of educational and guidance programs for veterans in Dayton. We have attempted to include as many agencies as possible. I won't take time to name all of them, but shall mention a few: employment service, the Red Cross, veterans' organizations, churches, labor, chamber of commerce, and what is most important, I think, the Veterans' Administration Regional Office which is located in our city and has taken a very active part in this local problem.

We do have this veterans' information center that was referred to a moment ago. On the average we are processing 330 veterans a day in that center. We invoke the help of representatives of education, Red Cross, Veterans' Administration, and at times

* This is the third paper in the panel series on the returning veteran. It appears here as an adaptation of the stenotypist's report of Mr. Boda's discussion.

of the employment service which was located directly across the street where the Veterans' Administration is now setting up a sub-office. The Board of Education building itself is located within a half-square of this veterans' information center. It is designed to be a clearinghouse, a onestop type of organization. Veterans are directed to the proper agencies where we think they can get the help they need.

It has been very interesting to notice within the last few months that a large percentage of the veterans coming into our information center are asking questions about education.

The second responsibility which I believe the superintendent of schools must assume is to consider veterans' education as a part of the total educational program. I was interested in what one of the speakers said a moment ago. The veteran doesn't want to be considered a problem, as someone apart. He can be a benefit to our schools. I think he has been. So the superintendent must consider this veterans' education program, although he would like to think of it as temporary, as a definite part of the total educational program. That means he has to develop a program that is both broad enough and wide enough to meet the abilities and the needs and interests of veterans. It means college preparatory courses in high schools. It means general education, vocational education, and combinations of academic and vocational education. It even means pre-high school training.

We have had some veterans come back to us that can't read and write and we have taken the responsibility for those fellows in a post-high school program. Since we have to maintain relationships with nearby colleges and private schools, the veterans' educational program is a broad one and is part of the total educational effort.

In the third place, I think the super-

intendent has to recognize this veterans' program as involving an adequate and effective program involving guidance, curriculum adaptations, and appropriate instructional materials. Each of these aspects has been mentioned by speakers on this panel already. One or two words about the guidance function of the program. We are trying to use the veterans' high school records if he has them. We are trying to secure pertinent information from all the agencies in our community that have such information on these veterans. We are fortunate in having the Veterans' Administration testing and advisement offices in our Board of Education building. Therefore, we have the opportunity to use their services as well as the services of our own testing department.

The thing that bothers me most is that we have a tendency to put too much emphasis upon testing and not enough upon counseling and advisement. In the matter of curriculum, we have found that some of the boys can profit from our high school courses as they are. We have found that many of them aren't interested in 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grade English as such, but in learning more about contemporary literature, how to read a little better, how to write the English language. We have also tried to provide for some acceleration, some individual programs.

One or two words about instructional problems. I have been very much interested in the fact that somebody suggested that we need to humanize teaching a little more. We do have to have sympathetic teachers. We have one program I am going to mention in just a moment where we have been very careful in selecting teachers because we recognize the importance of the teacher's personality and attitude.

May I take a few minutes to mention a few important features of our pro-

gram? We have had for a number of years what we call a high school board of examiners made up of three high school principals, the assistant superintendent, and the curriculum chairman. That board has always had as its responsibility the evaluation of credits, the study of particular problems of accreditation and, of course, since the veteran is coming back, this board has assumed the responsibility for evaluating his military experience. Thus in our school system, that is not done by the individual high school principal. It is done by this board. We have one man in my office who spends his entire time interviewing veterans. We meet once a week and this staff member tries to bring to the board a large number of cases which are reviewed in light of his discussion with them and any tests that have been given. With all the facts before it this board attempts to evaluate the case and to suggest the educational program in our school system which will be most helpful to that veteran.

We have few veterans in our comprehensive high schools. Our experience has been similar to those of others who have spoken before. Most of them have done very well. The two that we have had to dismiss had had trouble when they were in school before. Their army records showed that they had been trouble makers there. So we were having the same kind of trouble that they were noted for.

We have a few in our day cooperative high school. They go to school two weeks and work two weeks. We have many in our day trade extension program which is a cooperative effort with industry. We have a Friday night high school which enrolls a number of veterans. Then we have another program which some of you, I know, are acquainted with and have in your own schools. We have a series of individualized high school courses in which about

five hundred veterans are enrolled. Whenever they decide they can go into these courses, they finish as rapidly as they can. We have been very careful in our selection of teachers and we are particularly hoping to serve a large number of older men in that program.

Our evening vocational set-up has been very helpful to many veterans. Some of that is the so-called post-high school type of program. We have also been very fortunate in being able to work with labor and the local building industry in developing a series of vocational courses in the building trades field, a very successful program so far with veterans. Most of the classes meet in the evening, some of them on Saturdays.

The pre-high school program I referred to a moment ago is a special tutoring plan which makes it possible for certain veterans to complete work very quickly. This on-the-job training is our responsibility as far as recommendations are concerned in Ohio. Each school system has been asked to recommend business or industry for these on-the-job training programs. We have recommended to date 125 business and industrial establishments in our city for this purpose. We held a clinic not long ago with which the Chamber of Commerce helped us. About 1,250 people were involved. That was a very, very great responsibility which requires a larger staff than we have now and more time as well. It is a responsibility which we have been asked to assume and yet I fear we are not equipped to take it as we should. We don't have the staff to do the follow-up, and it can become a racket.

The last thing I would like to say is that the veterans' education program cannot stop in June and then be picked up again in September. It must be a full-time, twelve-month educational program.

THE RETURNING VETERAN, HIS SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE—IV*

WENDALL W. WRIGHT

Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

THE role of the university in relation to the returning veteran might equally well be stated the role of the veteran in the social and educational guidance of the university. It seems to me that we should understand now, as well as in the days ahead, that both the university and the veteran are due to be reacted upon and education—changed behavior—will result for both.

The college population in the United States before the war was approximately a million and a half. Perhaps nearly twice that number may be enrolled in colleges and universities within the next two years. Half of the students in larger universities now are veterans. By next year, perhaps 60 to 70 percent in some schools will be veterans. This in itself changes higher education. If I might hastily summarize, the veteran brings increased age, increased maturity, and broadened experience in human affairs. Compressed in a short space of time, these young men have so often seen more and had a broader and deeper experience than most adults in half a lifetime. The result of this is that there is more down-to-earthness; less frothy college Joe boy; more growth and true achievement; more "know-how" to deal with situations than we are accustomed to with university students. You can't give them the run-around. They have seen better top sergeants than you are. They have been kidded by experts. We are only amateurs.

The result of this is that the university from bottom to top has really bestirred itself. It has recognized it had a responsibility for housing both single and married students. It has found that buildings could be used both all day and in the evening. It has found that sloppy instruction or poor preparation by instructors could bring a howl from students that would be listened to. Mature discipline and not petty rules became a necessity. Genuine guidance became a part of the universities' services. These things are taking place now in every university and they will continue to do so. Then may I ask, who is guiding whom? To the veteran at least may I say thanks for what you are doing to the university.

Looking at from the point of view of the university, there seem to be several areas of responsibility that are ours.

1. It is our job to help to educate the veteran because he deserves this opportunity for education. If we would seem disturbed by the changes we meet, please let us recall that while we may have paid in anxiety we did not pay in blood. This our chance for service to the youth that served us. I have as little use for a slacker in this program of education as the world had for a slacker in war time.

2. These veterans must be given an opportunity to go to college. Until every college and university has used the full hours of the day and evening to hold classes; has gotten every trailer, barracks or dormitory available; has provided good instructors to the last

* This is the fourth paper in the panel series on the returning veteran. It appears here as an adaptation of the stenotypist's report of Mr. Wright's discussion.

one to be found; and has exhausted its financial resources, *it has no right to close its doors* to veterans who wish to have and are able to take a college education. I am not proud of a college who says, "We are full up and we must turn you away," unless perhaps the North Central Association should investigate to determine whether they have exhausted all of the resources that it is possible for them to put into this situation.

3. There is small place in my thinking for college and university admission requirements applied to the veteran that do not have real predictive value in college success. Already in our university, at least, some of our most cherished predictive factors have proven worthless with the veteran. Maturity and positive purpose are factors somewhat new to our statisticians. Only a few, 2 percent, of our veterans last semester entered on the basis of the G.E.D. test only. May I make that clear—not as sent to us from the high school but given by us directly. They had not had all or in some cases any high school work; these cases without a single exception made good their first semester.

I believe I will say this. One man came to us at thirty-six years of age who did not have a day of high school education. He did exceedingly well on the G.E.D. test. In fact, I said to him, "I wish we had hundreds like you." Remember, he is only one case, however. At the end of the semester, he made fourteen hours of "A" and two hours of "B." We have spent a lot of time and energy in the giving of the G.E.D. tests, and all these things are just one more little load added to the total. I recently said to the man who helped me with this testing program that if all the work we have put into it did this one thing, namely, helped that 7 percent, I am glad we did it.

We need to put into operation rather fully what we have been playing with for some time, an adequate guidance service. Guidance for the veteran is essentially no different from what the best universities have done in the past, except that it deals with more mature people who really want help. The percentage of abnormal veterans who get to the university is distinctly less than that of a regular freshman class. While any university needs a good sensible psychiatrist, the need is not accentuated by the presence of veterans. The veteran is vocationally minded and therefore vocational guidance is highly important, but it has always been important. Guidance in beginning college academic work through the use of tutorial aid is highly important. It is our experience that the need lasts only for a relatively short time. There are rough spots in college algebra or chemistry where a little help means a lot in the beginning. Veterans are glad to get help in how to study. And as a veteran said to me with a grin in relation to his English composition, "This isn't the kind of English we've been using for the last few years."

If my observations are typical of universities, there is a factor in this veterans' group that I think is significant. They are resourceful and they have had some practice in being resourceful. They have developed so many techniques of helping each other that I sometimes think all we need do is encourage them. "Help your buddy" is sometimes more help than anyone else can give.

The married undergraduate student was somewhat rare on the college campus before the war. With 30 percent of our college veterans married, we have a new situation in any university. Here again, helping these married students is largely implementing their plans for recreation and group living. Helpful

guidance is necessary here, but dictation would kill the opportunity for a rich experience in community living.

I do not discount for one minute the phase of our university organization which we usually call the personnel and guidance work. It is so important that any university that does not have it is distinctly weakened in its educational services to students. However, may I say that which sounds very academic: The really significant work in social and educational guidance of the veteran is his broad intellectual development while he is in the university. At no time in the lifetime of anyone here have we had such an opportunity to have on our campuses a group of relatively mature men who on the whole really desire an education.

Can we expand our own horizons to meet this challenge? These people in a very short time will be through the

university. When they are through will we have materially raised the vision of a million people? Will we have broadened the scope of their intellectual understanding? Will we have sharpened their sensitivity to social problems? Will we have carried forward their resourcefulness and given it the balance of judgment? Will we have kept alive their firm belief that when a thing is right it can be done? Will we make them competent workers in a country that believes in the dignity of work well done? Will we prepare them to push back the walls of ignorance where we have not yet penetrated? If we can, and I think we can, we will have done something as worthy as these veterans have done on the field of battle. If we cannot, I suppose we will continue our philosophical discussion on whether we were too little or too late.

THE RETURNING VETERAN, HIS SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE—V*

E. L. MEADER

Wichita Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas

OUR Board of Education recognized that many *special* educational problems would confront the schools and the veterans with the return of veterans to high school. The problem was placed in the Department of Industrial and Adult Education. The assistant director was given the assignment of counseling and coordinating veteran education with the two high school principals as active members of his advisory committee. The registrars of both high schools are consulted in regard to credits, graduate requirements, majors and minors, etc. The Director of Secondary Education is consulted and advised with in regard to policies, courses of study, and testing.

All veterans entering the Wichita High Schools are routed through this office for counseling and advisement before being placed in an educational program. Their educational opportunities under the GI Bill of Rights is explained to them and any service credits they may have earned are evaluated.

We were told by many administrators and interested organizations that not many veterans would return to high school and complete their education. That prediction was not exactly true in Wichita, as we now have 107 veterans enrolled in our regular day high school with new veterans coming to us daily for counseling in regard to their return to school.

We were surprised to find that a large number of these returning vet-

erans were not asking for service credits on the basis of their educational experiences in the armed forces. They state that an educational background is what they want and that service credits will not give it to them.

Wherever and whenever possible we organize special training to meet special needs. This training may be formal high school, special technical, "on-the-job," or day trade. For example, the U. S. E. S. office called and requested training for a veteran as an operator of a power seaming machine. We have no such equipment in our school shops. Arrangements were made with a local factory in cooperation with the plant union to give this veteran one week's instruction on their power seaming machine using their operator to train the veteran. It worked, the veteran got the job, and the schools received the credit for training him.

In regard to formal high school courses we have organized six classes in American history and government for the veteran who wants to graduate from high school using the G.E.D. tests to clear additional credit needed for graduation. Kansas requires one unit of American history and one-half unit of government. Those classes are held in the evening school and upon completion, an end-of-course examination is given by the department head in the high school. We will have given those courses to over 150 veterans by the end of this school year. Probably 85 percent will pass the examination.

We have twenty-seven veterans who are returning to us now for credit in

* This is the fifth paper in the panel series on the returning veteran.

algebra and geometry. Those veterans entered the university with a deficiency in mathematics and are returning to make up this deficiency. We have a working agreement with the university whereby we may bill that institution for their tuition. Some of these veterans are enrolled in regular day high school classes; others in special evening classes. The veteran has his choice.

All G.E.D. tests are given under my supervision with the results certified to the proper institutions. Our policy is to issue a high school diploma *only* to our local veterans who previously attended one of our local public high schools and have fulfilled resident requirements. We administer the tests to those veterans who want their high school diplomas from other schools and certify the results to the institutions of their choice for evaluation providing that such a procedure meets those institutions' approval. We have rendered this service to thirty-seven veterans with their high schools accepting the certified results. Up to the present time we have given the G.E.D. tests to 175 veterans with 91.2 per cent passing the battery of five tests. We found that all those failing failed the No. 1 test with low scores on No. 2 and No. 4 in that order. Of those who failed only one veteran raised his score on the remaining four tests to bring his average to 45. We have used Form B up to the present time. We shall change to Form A as soon as a supply is available.

Our State Department of Education will issue a certificate equivalency to a veteran in lieu of a high school diploma on the basis of the G.E.D. tests. We recommend to the veteran who has never attended high school that he apply for the certificate since industry will accept an equivalency rating. For instance, a veteran recently entered my office with the statement that he had to have a high school diploma to secure a

job with T.W.A. Airlines. I called the personnel director, explained the G.E.D. tests and asked him if he would accept the favorable results of those tests in lieu of a high school diploma. He called me back the next day and said that they would be acceptable. It is my personal belief that in some cases industry may place more value on an equivalency certificate than on a high school diploma.

We are ready at all times to assist the veteran to plan a vocational course. At present we have twenty-eight veterans actively enrolled in our vocational day trade school. This is a three-year course for those who want a diploma. For the veteran who is a high school graduate we accelerate the course so that he may complete in one and one-half years by increasing his shop time from three to six hours. We have a working agreement with labor organizations and industry that as soon as a veteran is ready for on-the-job training he may be transferred to one of their shops. We try to evaluate the veteran's armed forces experience when placing him in a trade course. We try to utilize his experiences to the best advantage of the veteran.

The building trades council and contractors are now erecting a building for our use to train carpenters and brick masons. Those courses will be organized on a basis of thirty-four weeks for entrance into the trade, at which time they will be placed with a contractor on-the-job training. The school will be a unit of our day trade school.

This program will be in cooperation with the public schools, building contractors, and building trades council. We have two classes in related supplementary subject material for carpenter apprentices, painting and decorating, and one for electrical apprentices with a total of seventy-five apprentices who are all veterans.

As previously stated we have 107 veterans scattered through our two high schools. They range in age from nineteen to thirty-four years. When they began returning to us in large numbers we were faced with the problem of segregation. Most authorities advocated separate classes whenever possible. We took the problem directly to the veterans by personal interview. They said that they were returning to school for two reasons; namely, to complete their education and to adjust themselves to civilian life. They felt that if they were placed in separate classes they would not have the opportunity to adjust so quickly. Since they have to associate with young people in society, sports, church, and community activities segregation in school would not aid in the readjusting. Such readjustment must be a mutual process shared by both the veteran and the civilian. They said in substance, "We have two things that we must remember to make our return to school successful during the readjustment period: first, that we have aged in life's experiences about ten years beyond the average high school student; and, second, that the high school student is still an adolescent wanting recognition. It then becomes a mutual problem of assistance. We must develop leaders in both groups who can work together."

So far it has worked in the Wichita schools. The instructors have reported that the return of the veteran has stimulated the regular high school students to maintain a higher standard of achievement.

Veterans were asked to give us their reaction to the *Saturday Evening Post's* article, "Veterans Do Not Like To Study with Kids." It was their opinion that it was poor psychology and poor publicity for the GI. It could have a tendency negatively to influence a veteran who might otherwise have re-

turned to school. They thought that perhaps it could happen in isolated cases, but that if it were generally true then perhaps the school needed the veteran to straighten out the disciplinary situation.

Approximately 95 percent of the veterans coming to us for advisement have as their objective an engineering career. My guess is that a large percent of those who are returning and attempting to enter the engineering profession as college freshmen will fail because they do not have the requisite mathematical ability, aptitude, or educational background for engineering.

We find that many veterans returning to us graduated from high school without mathematics before entering the armed services. The reasons they give are either that mathematics was too hard for them or they did not like it. In either case it meant low or failing grades. Many of these veterans are now being referred to the Wichita schools at the request of the local University to make up such subjects as algebra, geometry, and trigonometry to qualify for an engineering course. They will be bitterly disappointed when they fail and I am quite sure that many of them will. Their problem is the result of poor guidance or no guidance in the armed services or perhaps we failed in our guidance program.

Many veterans who did not enter high school and have now been discharged from the service are asking us for a high school diploma on the strength of their armed forces experience. We must admit that this has been a mechanical war requiring great technical skill and knowledge. But generally speaking, this technical skill and knowledge was so specialized that it did not give the necessary broad educational background essential to success as an engineer.

My experience with the returned veteran leads me to believe that the armed services have greatly oversold the veteran on a college education. I find that many forms (No. 100), as issued at the separation center, have typed on them, "Recommended for College." My experience with the veteran convinces me that it would have been much better for him if more

effort had been made to steer him into on-the-job training, apprenticeship, technical vocational, or a junior college terminal course instead. This is especially true for the veteran who has not finished high school with sufficient credits to assure him of reasonable success in college unless there has been sufficient testing to determine accurately and intelligently that he may succeed.

WHAT SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES CAN LEARN FROM EDUCATION IN THE ARMED FORCES

*Report of the Subcommittee on Education in the Armed Forces, of the
Committee on Fundamentals¹*

PEARL HARBOR, a day of infamy, may be called a day of awakening for those of us charged with the responsibility for the education of American youth. A great crisis in our nation's history had to be met, and met effectively, so that the United States would be successful in its prosecution of a world war. Great masses of men and women had to be taken from their homes to be conditioned in order that they could take their places intelligently and effectively in a war situation during the months and years necessary to achieve victory. We have won the military victory in Europe and in the Pacific. What has been done to insure this great success can and must be put to use in the continued education of American youth in a post-war period.

Our secondary schools and colleges have been struggling to educate the youth in their charge for complete living. However, traditional procedures, inadequate equipment and the improper education of the teaching personnel have caused us to stumble often in our attempts to prepare youth for future intelligent living. That we have had some measure of success is proved by the great advances we have made through the years. Yet the path has been strewn with many failures because of the inadequacies of the system and the hesitancy on the part of our leaders

to raise their sights so that we might more intelligently know exactly where the youth of America is going. Victory in war calls for competent leaders and intelligent followers. Each individual must know his place in the battle line and must do his job effectively or there is no victory. Victory in peace can and will only be achieved when our educational institutions prepare our young men and women to take their places intelligently in the adult world according to their needs and abilities. The social, spiritual, and economic demands of our world call for intelligent preparation of the product that goes into it.

EFFECTS OF THE WAR WILL EXCEED THAT OF SERVICE SCHOOLS

Any national effort such as the Second World War, involving the extensive mobilization of our human and material resources, is certain to have immediate as well as long-term influences on every major institution and relationship in America. Education, especially in its institutional form, is no exception. Public education from pre-school through college is likely to be modified. The effects of war may be direct or indirect.

Thus, when trained teachers are taken into the armed services on short notice, untrained personnel must man the schools. This kind of war influence is easy to observe. When our country was faced with the necessity of training millions of men and women for the great war tasks ahead, the services sought out the best teacher personnel that they could obtain. Our educational

¹ Members of the Committee are: RAYMOND MOORE, Principal, Lake Forest High School, Lake Forest, Illinois; PAUL A. WITTY, Professor of Education, Northwestern University; and GORDON N. MACKENZIE, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University (*Chairman*).

institutions felt the impact of this great loss of teachers. Experts in every field were called to the colors to train young men and women who were expected to do the jobs that must be done to win a war. These instructors were intelligently chosen, their background was closely scrutinized as was their ability to work with people. That excellent personnel was chosen is evidenced by the great success our services have enjoyed. Economic conditions too have served to deplete the ranks of able teachers. Thus one of the important results of the war is a tremendous staff problem.

There are other influences of the war which are significant for education, though not related to the service's educational program. For example, the selective service program brought to the fore serious problems of physical and mental health. This discovery, rather than what was done about it in service schools, will undoubtedly influence educational policy and practice for many years to come.

Similarly the tremendous man-power loss resulting from widespread illiteracy among American youth impressed American citizens sufficiently to create new efforts in this area. The service schools proved that something could be done about the problem, but it was the rediscovering of the basic inadequacy of our civilian educational effort which is most important.

The fact that communities found they could work together on a great range of problems has potential significance for education. If staff members of our schools and colleges will build immediately on this experience the ultimate contribution toward more effective education will be incalculable. It has long been recognized that personal and community problems are closely related and that the effectiveness of education can be increased when

social influences are coordinated and directed by common goals.

The experience of colleges with government contracts, particularly for research but also for training, open up whole new fields for peacetime activities. Already higher institutions are arranging to carry on research for the armed forces. They might well do so for other agencies. The possibilities of expanding contract training are great if institutions wish to enter the field.

The war experience has had great influence on those who participated. Many, for the first time, became acquainted with other sections of their own country. Others observed directly the advantages and disadvantages of life in other countries. All were thrown in with individuals of widely varying backgrounds and experiences. Certainly membership in the armed forces provided an important educative experience for all individuals.

Many other examples of the effects of the war on the education of individuals and on the program of organized education could be cited. It is very probable that the sum total of these would greatly exceed the influence of the educational program set up by the armed forces. Yet, the educational program of the services is certain to influence programs in schools and colleges. It is the purpose of this report to give attention to this one problem. An analysis of the nature of the armed forces educational program and a consideration of differences between military and civilian education will provide some basis for suggesting points which civilian education might well be reexamined in terms of war-time experience.

THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF SERVICE SCHOOLS

Much has been said from platform, radio, and press in praise of service schools. They have done an effective

job on a scale which staggers the imagination and approaches the miraculous. Because of a very effective public information program the public is led to assume that strange and wonderful new techniques have been invented which should be transplanted to our schools and colleges and thus completely remake them. Unfortunately, such statements usually neglect to mention that army-navy training programs are doing something very different from what most civilian schools are attempting, that the conditions under which the two kinds of schools operate have little similarity, and that teachers from our regular public schools were responsible for much of the war time military training. It was not the army and navy but the public school teacher in and out of uniform who created the so-called GI method. One of the important things which schools and colleges can learn from the war is the value of their teaching personnel and their program to the military branch of our government. It was the educators from our schools and colleges who were responsible for the success of the training programs. However, they encountered new problems, operated under unusual conditions, conducted the greatest educational program this nation has ever seen, and had resources at their command which were undreamed of under conditions of peace. All of these factors make it important to examine what educators did while they were at war. Certainly those who were directly involved gained much through their participation which will aid them in peacetime endeavors. A report such as this may aid in interpreting this experience to a wider group. A brief statement concerning the nature of the service programs may help to evaluate this program and to draw upon it for civilian education.

COMPLEXITY OF THE SERVICE PROGRAM

Almost all men in the army and navy are given basic training involving indoctrination in military form and procedure, a knowledge of fundamental rules and regulations, the basic elements of military drill, training for physical fitness, and instruction in self-protection, health, and first aid. Beyond this basic training there are actually hundreds of different kinds of schools, each training specialists to perform some particular task. Millions of men are thus trained for hundreds of specific jobs. Each camp or base is actually a great school or possibly a collection of schools. It is estimated that 90 percent of the army is given some form of specialized training. Sixty percent of the navy is sent to specialized schools, and a very high proportion of the remainder receive training on an apprenticeship basis. Some men may attend several types of specialized schools in succession or at intervals broken by periods of service. The main job of army and navy officers is training and this is pursued vigorously and continuously from the time of entrance to service until men go into battle.

ORGANIZATION OF SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS

The organization of the training program in both the army and the navy is highly centralized, in respect to major principles and policies. Teaching techniques and the general tone and morale of the individuals schools will vary widely. The Training Division of the War Department General Staff, G-3 as it is called, formulates the basic training policies for the army. These have been publicized and are available in War Department Field Manual, 21-5. Within this framework the Army Air Forces, the Army Ground Forces, and

the Army Service Forces have developed extensive training programs adapted to their specific needs. The navy directs most of its training through the Bureau of Naval Personnel. In practice, the Bureau of Aeronautics retains autonomy in respect to the navy's air training. Also, the fleet controls the operational training for new vessels, amphibious training, and a series of specialized schools which serve the fleet directly. The major portion of the navy training can be generally regarded as being highly centralized.

As a matter of general policy, within both services subject outlines or courses of study are fixed by directive from the central responsible group. Texts may be specified, film listed, and equipment provided. However, teachers and local school authorities have much freedom in the development of administrative and teaching techniques. This is true in spite of a considerable measure of supervision or inspection by headquarter's representatives from Washington, the Army Service Commands, or the Naval Districts. Probably the most important single factor in determining a school's influence is the local staff and administration. Even the military conditions and controls will vary considerably with the officer-in-charge. Thus, while the goal for two schools of the same kind may be identical, in that both want to develop gunners mates who can service a particular series of guns, the two schools may appear very different to an observer. The differences among schools having the same name warrants one generalization: there is no "G. I." method.

These differences should be kept in mind in considering the remainder of this statement. No sweeping generalizations can be made, but illustration of common practices and rather widely held beliefs are possible.

OFF-DUTY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

The statements made thus far are concerned primarily with the regular army and navy training programs. In addition, the armed forces sponsor off-duty study and instruction. This includes classes on any subject in which men and women are interested; the war orientation work which has become generally known through the excellent films and maps which have been produced as teaching aids; and the correspondence and self-teaching courses handled by the United States Armed Forces Institute. The latter program includes courses of two types: those which contribute to an individual's assignment in the service, and those which relate to the personal interests and ambitions of the student. Off-duty education is a new venture for the services and variations from center to center are great. However, hundreds of thousands of men and women were able to keep alive their intellectual interests, to increase their value to the services or to prepare for civilian occupations.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SERVICE AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Before presenting some of the features of service schools which have suggestions for civilian education, certain differences between the two types of programs will be presented. Only as these are clearly recognized can any true assessment of the situation be made. In the comments which follow, there is no assumption that army and navy schools provide a guide for secondary and higher education. The differences to be enumerated will indicate why this is true.

Each Service School Has a Specific Purpose.—Of first importance is the

difference in purpose of the two kinds of schooling. The army and navy training is generally of a specific, vocational nature. It seeks to develop mastery of a particular body of skills such as would be required by radio repairmen, radio operators, bomb disposal experts, or carburetor repairmen. Frequently, these skills are not highly generalized, but are related to the particular kind of equipment used by the military unit providing the training. Even the broader instruction which may be offered in the general recruit or officer programs has the rather definite purpose of making soldiers or sailors out of recruits or inductees, and officers out of selected civilians or service personnel. Naturally, the curriculums of these schools reflect their singleness of purpose. They are training men for specific jobs or billets which will be waiting on the completion of the schooling. Because time is very important, especially in wartime, the curriculum has to be carefully selected and only the most essential skills and understandings can be taught. Men must be prepared quickly for a gigantic task.

Some of the officer training programs, particularly those conducted in colleges, were not so specific or narrowly technical. This was especially true of the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps program in the colleges. This program simply added certain subjects to the regular college programs. The Army Specialized Training Program, the Army's Civil Affairs Training Program, and the Navy's School of Military Government while of relatively broad scope were naturally planned to provide a special type of training.

The major portion of civilian schooling has no such singleness of purpose. Vocational education, which is more comparable to the service training, frequently has short unit courses which

prepare for specific jobs. But secondary schools and colleges are not made up primarily of short time courses for known jobs. Instead, these institutions provide general education and prepare for a variety of jobs. High Schools and colleges generally seek the broadest possible development of the individual; they endeavor to make him an effectively participating citizen and a useful member of society.

This difference in purpose reveals itself in the pattern of instruction. Most service schools run for a period ranging from a few days to several weeks. Even the longer training periods of twelve to twenty-four weeks will often consist of a number of very short units. The singleness of purpose and the relative simplicity of the goal permit a preciseness and exactness which is not found in civilian education.

Trainees in Service Schools Are Carefully Selected.—A second major difference between service and civilian education is the extent of selection and classification. Both the army and navy proceeded understandingly on the assumption that only the best men should be selected for any particular assignment. As a result, much thought and preparation were given to the matter of selecting the proper personnel to receive various types of instruction. Selection boards were set up all over the country to obtain the desired individuals. Classification tests were given to aid in making proper placements. The services referred to the school records, interviewed candidates, and studied carefully the backgrounds of the men who were called into the services. It was a most democratic procedure, for men from all walks of life were chosen for the various tasks according to their ability to do the job required of them and the demands of the service for manpower. There were many interesting examples of men being chosen

for assignments whose formal educational records seemed to preclude the possibility of such responsibility. It was found in many instances, however, that many men had a richer background of experience than the records revealed. Many showed by objective tests that they had excellent aptitudes that were not given the proper impetus during their formal school experiences. Others had carried on with self-education because their schooling had been interrupted by economic necessity or because they had failed to find satisfaction in the schools they had attended. It was not an uncommon situation to find in the services, especially in the army, officers giving orders to their classroom teachers. These young officers had been endowed by nature with the qualities needed to become better leaders of men. Many special tests were developed and a very complete record card travels with the individual. Undoubtedly there have been tragic misplacements of individual men. Sometimes the needs of the services at a particular time have made this inevitable. Also, the classification system has not always worked successfully. Yet, in view of the complexity of the task a creditable job was done. Military authorities have recognized that they can produce trained and efficient units faster if they select for training those who have the greatest capacity to profit from training for the task to be performed.

The secondary schools and colleges of the nation obviously cannot operate on this basis. There are no fixed and certain jobs waiting for their product. They work with all of the youth of the land and enrollment in courses is often a matter of family ambition, parental pride, or some other misdirecting force not operating in the armed forces. Except for a relatively few vocational school situations, the secondary schools

are never able to work with a highly selected group being prepared for a specific job. Some of the colleges can institute rigorous selection programs.

Service School Students Are Strongly Motivated.—A third and very important difference between the types of schools is the motivation. This is a powerful factor and the service schools have an advantage which probably never will be equaled in civilian education. In many types of service training during wartime, men know that their own lives, as well as those of their associates, will depend upon their learning well what is taught them. Especially as men get into advanced training, they feel the importance of self-preservation and put forth great effort in order not to let the other fellow down. Obviously a feeling of patriotism is also operating in many cases.

Motivation in the service schools, however, is more tangible than in almost any other type of schooling. Learning something pays off in higher rating, increased compensation or special privileges. The connection between schooling and advancement is direct. The desire and possibility of improving one's status becomes a powerful influence. Tied with this is the whole system of rating designations and the possibility of disappointing the family or a girl friend. Progress is publicly announced on the shirtsleeves. Undoubtedly civilian schools could profitably give more attention to motivation. However, much of civilian education is not and should not be directly related to financial gain.

The kind of instruction given in service schools has a large measure of intrinsic motivation. The air corps cadet can very easily see that what he is learning will be needed if he is to be a successful pilot. The student in a navy gunners mate school knows that he will be expected to service and repair guns.

The pressure to shorten training programs has, in most cases, eliminated all but the essentials, and these are directly related to the man's ultimate job.

Certain negative factors operate to further increase the motivation. The rigid military control and regulation, which would be thought undesirable in civilian education, does serve to keep some individuals on the job. There is the further possibility of elimination from training if unsuccessful, the loss of privileges such as week-end liberty, and the requirement of night study if grades are unsatisfactory. In practice these are potent influences.

Many service schools have not relied solely on the kinds of motivation already described. They have probably been more conscientious than public school in stressing the reasons why something is important. It is fairly common to find schools in which every hour is opened with reasons for the study of the problem of the day and closed with a summary of what has been learned, supplemented by a statement of its importance.

Service men come in contact with others whose education has been more adequate than their own, compelling them to appreciate the values of formal education which they have missed. The G. I. in many instances was sold on the value of education. He sometimes took advantage of the educational opportunities afforded for service advancement with an eye to the postwar advantages of such education. He took courses that had little to do with the war emergency through the United States Armed Forces Institute and other educational offerings, because he definitely appreciated the need for further education. This awakening of the youth of America is a challenge that cannot be denied.

In spite of distinct differences be-

tween service and civilian schools on matters of motivation, with certain pronounced advantages in favor of the service schools, it is probable that schools and colleges generally overlook many opportunities to develop strong student purposes which would change the character and the quality of the outcome.

Study Is Highly Concentrated in Service Schools.—A fourth difference is the degree of concentration of study. In service schools, students frequently work intently on one topic or problem at a time. If they are trying to learn a language, it may be a matter of working eight hours a day for three months without the distraction of competing interests, studies or social life. Loose statements are frequently made to the effect that students in service schools progress as far in three months as they would in four years of college. Such a statement may be true within the narrow area being considered. Actually the student might devote more hours to study in a three month intensive course than he would in four years of college. For certain types of skills it is entirely possible and very effective to concentrate instruction. Careful planning and superior teaching conditions facilitate a speeding up of the learning and tend to reduce the total hours needed for instruction, as well as the time lapse between beginning and ending.

Service Schools Emphasize Learning through Using.—A fifth difference is to be found in the relative emphasis placed upon learning through doing. This is implied in the specific and concentrated character of the programs mentioned above. It is, however, worthy of special consideration. Much of the instruction in the services is functional. An example of this is to be found in the teaching of foreign languages where men concentrate on the spoken language. In a short time men can

carry on a conversation in a foreign tongue. Similarly the service schools deleted much of the material in mathematics which was useless for their particular purposes, emphasizing those lessons which are necessary for a particular type of military assignment. In the vocational area the men are taught from the very beginning by practicing to do the job that is expected of them. As a result of such instruction, the men see the need as well as the worth of the instruction given, and they enjoy the thrill of immediate results. Theory has its place on the higher levels, but learning to do by doing is a most important factor in obtaining quick results. The laboratory method is used extensively and many men who had been unsuccessful in civilian schools responded favorably to this training and made rapid progress.

Service Schools Have Ample Financial Support.—A sixth and very important difference is the amount of financial support. There can be little question but that many of the service schools are several times as expensive as civilian schools, even when only the comparable items of cost are considered. The laboratory equipment of our best civilian vocational schools would be insignificant when compared with that of the best furnished service schools. Visual aids, models, charts, and similar materials tend to be much more plentiful in service schools. It is probable also, that a comparison of the instructor-student ratio of the two types of institutions favors the service schools. Frequently they have exceptional staff provisions with a large number of individuals devoting time to testing, interviewing, and classifying students, developing instructional materials, handling visual aids, planning lessons, and supervising or training instructors. The fact that such ample funds can be provided for schooling for war raises the

question of whether we could not make more ample allowance for schools for peace.

WHAT CIVILIAN SCHOOLS MAY LEARN

In the preceding discussion of six differences between service and civilian schools, some mention has been made of things we can learn from service schools. However, the main purpose was the pointing up of contrasts between two types of schools—contrasts which should be recognized in making generalizations concerning either what service schools did or what we can learn from them. There are several additional observations concerning army and navy schools which are worthy of most careful consideration as we plan for public schools in the years ahead.

One of the outstanding things about service schools is the extent to which their success is based on the use of modern teaching procedures and principles. Several evidences of this will be cited.

Civilian Education of Great Potential Value in Military Training.—The extent to which military authorities drew upon civilian educational agencies and utilized their methods and procedures is a testimony to the esteem in which they were held. Naturally, the military authorities turned to various specialists in all areas to aid them in their gigantic undertaking. Instructors from schools and colleges entered teaching in the service and utilized some of the most forward looking methods and means at their command. In this sense they tried many things which were not possible under more tradition-bound conditions in civilian schools. As new areas of training opened in the services, each presented entirely new problems. Often it was possible to inject ideas which had received approval only in educational theory. Those who participated in these programs gained significantly from

this opportunity. Others can by studying the program determine the extent to which service programs of education support the validity of certain modern concepts of education.

The Significance of Clearly Defined Goals.—The first indication that service schools work in harmony with modern educational beliefs is to be found in the stress placed on clearly defined goals and appropriate motivation. As service programs became organized great clarity developed as to the purposes for which they were working. The skills required by a navigator, an underwater demolition expert, or a bomb disposal specialist were carefully defined. In these three areas great stress has been placed on the development of judgment. For example, students in underwater demolition, after some thoroughgoing initial instruction, have been observed being quizzed by their instructors as follows: "What do you think would be the effect of placing the charge this way rather than that way?" "In the light of your knowledge on this explosive, what do you think would happen should you be forced to use it this way rather than the way in which you have been taught?" These men may spend all night in the water, practicing what they have learned in daylight hours, but continually being faced with new obstacles and new problems. It is their job to learn to blast their way through regardless of what they find.

Thus, while the specificity of the job to be learned aids in developing clarity of objectives, instructors are concerned with much more than mere routine skills. In service schools, stress is placed on the fundamentals of a problem without presenting masses of detailed information. Effort is directed toward developing, generalizing, and reinforcing a relatively small number of basic skills and understandings. It is important to recognize the attention service

schools give to student understanding of objectives—to the know why. This is an essential of efficient training in war and peace.

The importance of clearly defining our objectives should be obvious. Once they are boldly outlined they give invaluable assistance in selecting appropriate learning experiences, in providing a basis for guidance, and in selecting students. Increasingly secondary schools and colleges are being forced to determine the purposes of their courses. Not only is this demanded by students, but its necessity for effective learning is now obvious to many instructors. The services made valuable use of their objectives in working with students. Although schools and colleges are not, through general education, preparing for specific vocations, the importance of clarity as to goals is not in any way reduced.

The Importance of Opportunity to Learn by Doing.—One of the outstanding features of service schools is the extensive use of the concept of learning by doing. In the early days of army and navy training there was much use of lectures. Brief periods were set aside for problems or for laboratory exercises. At first, there was a feeling of success because of the amount of ground covered. The disconcerting element appeared when men who had completed their training were found to know very little. When the evidence began to come in instructors were quick to change. Schools were remade almost overnight. Laboratories were built by the students themselves, often out of scrap material salvaged from the junk yards. Great emphasis was placed on student response and student explanation of what was being done. Job sheets were furnished and students were allowed to work independently. This kind of reorganization sent student interest zooming upward. The increase in en-

thusiasm was in evidence at every turn. Discipline problems decreased. Naturally the morale and tone of the schools were improved.

A statement made in 1944 by Brigadier General Walter L. Weible, then Director of Military Training, Army Service Schools, expresses the point of view:

Complete mastery is required. Consequently, demonstrations and directed discussions tend to take the place of lectures; tactical exercises or shopwork replace classwork problems; performance tests with weapons or equipment supplant formal, written examinations; and hardheaded critiques take the place of leisure review exercises.

Observations of army and navy classrooms give evidence that this isn't just a matter of a general's talk. It is a realistic description of practice. It is good modern education. If we ever want mastery, even in an area often said to be intangible, such as citizenship education, schools will need demonstration, directed discussion, tactical exercises, field work, performance tests with weapons, and hardheaded critiques.

Another statement from the navy's instructor training bulletin has a similar message. It appeared in a bulletin entitled "The Vanishing Chairs." Although it was under the heading, "How to Develop a Good Shop," it has wider applicability. See how much of it applies to every field.

How To Develop a Good Shop

1. Stop long lectures; avoid vague, hard-to-see demonstrations before large groups.
2. Get rid of the chairs as rapidly as possible. Trainees should have exercise with actual equipment.
3. Break shop activities into specific jobs. Provide a work station for each job.
4. Develop job sheets for trainees' use.
5. If class is large, divide into small sections and rotate sections around available work stations. Sections not at work stations will study manuals under supervision of assistant instructors.

6. Provide as many training aids as possible.

7. Don't wait for new equipment or supplies. Use ingenuity to construct equipment and mock-ups, to divide the class into groups, or in other ways to see that all men have actual experience with equipment.

The effort of the services to provide opportunities for learning through doing are now well known. It is only logical in either service schools or civilian schools to afford students rich opportunities for doing the things which they will be called upon to do after schooling. Then, in addition, students must be taught the necessary related information and theory which will help them generalize from their experience. The story of the great desert training camps to prepare men to fight in the desert has appeared in newspapers, magazines, and films. The use of live ammunition in training has proved its worth. More specifically, cooks and bakers have been trained in preparing meals without their stoves and kitchens. They have been taught to prepare meals out-of-doors with little more than the food and the containers. For weeks and months boys went against the best reconstructions which could be built of German and Japanese beach defenses. The service schools early discovered the importance of learning through doing and they are firmly committed to following this principle.

Secondary schools and colleges, while confronted with an educational problem different from that of the armed services, would do well to extend the use of this principle. More and more civilian education is becoming concerned with its contribution to the personal and community living of its students. This demands participation by students in solving these problems under the direction of the school or college if positive results are to be secured.

Adjustment to the Individual.—A

third modern teaching procedure, which does not receive so widespread use in service schools as the two already mentioned, is that of adjustment to the individual. In some of the service schools, there was very little of the "get-tough" or "take-it-and-like-it" attitude. Instead, service schools have shown rather remarkable success with unadjusted boys. True, the force or bolstering strength of military authority is there to support them, but other factors have important influence in securing results. The armed forces frequently do not have enough men of desired calibre. There just aren't enough geniuses to go around. Schools are, therefore, forced to do their best with what they have. Instructors have remarkable flexibility in organizing work in terms of the ability of men, in eliminating reading where this is a stumbling block, and in emphasizing the practical. In fact, in many situations, a tutorial and apprenticeship system has been organized. In these, the man is led slowly, day by day, successfully to achieve more and more of the skills to be mastered.

One of the outstanding educational achievements of the services was that of taking men where they were and bringing them to a level that would fit them for effective participation in the war effort. Many men called into service had had little or no real educational opportunities. Thousands of them were sent to school to learn to read and to write before they could become good soldiers. Manpower was needed with the result that many men who might not otherwise have received the opportunity were given the chance to better themselves. Not only were better soldiers developed but individuals were raised to such a level of education that they may go back to their homes to live richer and fuller lives. In fact, the education in the services is an education

for ALL—the right of every American citizen. It is regrettable that a great nation like ours should have to learn from war that many of its citizens have been denied this great democratic privilege.

There are few who would not recognize that our schools and colleges have surpassed our service schools in their respect for and adjustment to, the individual. It is worthwhile to observe, however, that a military organization, when training American citizens for modern warfare, is making noticeable strides toward the principles of democratic education.

Widespread Use of Training Aids.—A fourth and most spectacular use of modern teaching procedures is found in the extensive employment of audio-visual aids, models and charts. As a supplement to learning by doing, these aids contribute a great variety of valuable learning experiences. They have a realism very close to firsthand experience. The use of films has been most widely publicized. However, remarkable values are obtained from cutaway models of instruments, engines, and guns.

The navy training program distributed over 3,000,000 blinker gadgets used in signal code training—that is, 3,000,000 duplicates of one device alone. The navy is reported to have put into production more films, involving a greater expenditure than that of any two Hollywood studios combined. The Bureau of Aeronautics, which makes most navy films, is said to have available, long before the end of the war, over 700,000 ten-minute reels. The navy had thirty libraries over the country for the distribution of its films.

Certainly films do not assure good teaching. To be effective, they must be appropriate to the purpose of the instruction. They can, however, if properly prepared, clarify, emphasize, and

demonstrate specific points and facts most effectively. The navy has found repeatedly, however, that instructional films lose their value when not properly coordinated in a program of instruction. The student needs to know the reason for study of a film. Seeing a film without knowing why is not apt to be productive. Activity, response, and criticism on the part of the student are necessary. For this it is essential that a skillful teacher be in charge.

The navy, at least, has gone far in developing a trained corps of librarians or utilization officers who advise on the selection of aids, train instructors in their proper use, deliver the aids to the classroom, instruct in their operation, and service the equipment provided.

This is one area in which the services have taken over something used by the school and advanced it far beyond anything found in civilian education. This is one phase of service school experience that deserves most careful study. There is much that we can learn.

The Development of Special Training Techniques.—The armed services have also made progress in perfecting several special training techniques. In vocational education many of the service schools have probably outdone public schools in both the provision of equipment and the emphasis on learning through doing. Part of this undoubtedly results from the narrower objective of the service schools. Yet, public vocational education might well be re-examined in terms of service school experience.

The foreign language instruction in service schools has demonstrated the feasibility of developing at least a conversation competence within a short period. The army has done a great deal with so-called bread and butter courses. Within eight to twelve hours, with the aid of records and carefully prepared manuals they have secured a minimum

knowledge of a foreign language. However, the more striking results are secured in the intensive training programs of both services, where, with selected students an effective speaking ability in a language as difficult as Japanese is developed in three months. Using native teachers, on records, students learn through imitation and practice in speaking. Instruction is by the direct method just as a child learns his own native language. Little attention is given to the science or grammar of the language, at least in the beginning stages. Classes are small and an "informant," or native expert in the language, is present in addition to the teacher to check on the accuracy of the learning. Instruction is highly concentrated with students devoting full time to their studies. Motivation is intense, in that students know they will have to use their language in contact with natives.

While conditions are different from those which civilian schools will be able to bring about, this experience serves further to support the direct method of instruction which has so long been advocated by modern educators. Also, credence is given to the idea that the best time to learn something is when one needs it—in other words, when intrinsic motivation is present. Certainly it seems clear that language needs of a complex type can be satisfied in six months to a year.

Within the area of literacy training too, service schools have faced a tremendous task. Thousands of men who had never learned to read have been given basic instruction. Some of these were at one time students in our public schools, while others did not have this opportunity. In many service schools there is an outstanding bit of functional education. Using the best modern techniques, special materials have been developed relating to the daily

experiences of men in the camps. The emphasis has been more on reading to learn than on learning to read.

There are undoubtedly other examples of the application of modern teaching procedures to special areas; however, these suggest at least the range of concern of service schools.

Certain Aspects of Education Can Be Hurried.—The success of the armed forces schools in developing rather complicated skills within a short period of time suggests the possibility of schools and colleges reducing the time required for instruction of certain types. There may be many pressures in this direction for all types of education. Where education must go hand in hand with the low physiological maturing of the individual or where judgment and understanding are developed through broad and varied experience it is probable that any considerable shortening of the educational process is not practical. This should not blind educators, however, to the possibility of developing skills within much less time than they have been accustomed to using. As demonstrated in service schools, it is likely that student difficulties are not so much the result of an inability of students to learn as they are a reflection on our inability to organize instruction so that the student will not be confused. If instruction is on a practical realistic basis and the student is guided through the process one hurdle at a time, he can learn more quickly than we thought.

Potentialities of In-Service Training.—Many former high school and college teachers received their first supervision in service schools, for both the army and the navy have extensive teacher training programs. Some of it was undoubtedly autocratic, but much of it was of a high order. Instructor trainers go in to help with teaching problems and work long enough with individual

instructors and schools completely to transform the program. In some cases, success is due to the relatively low level at which the instructor was originally working. However, in many cases, intelligent, well-trained individuals fail to grasp fully some aspect of the situation, such as the exact kind of skill needed, the thinking and background of the students, or the proper way of using the equipment, tools, and other resources at hand. Such problems are only natural. Many difficulties were encountered in service training programs which were absolutely new.

Civilians normally think of military organizations as being autocratic from top to bottom—everything happening as a result of directives. It is interesting to see how essential and how effective democratic supervision and in-service education can be in a military school.

High schools and colleges have been notorious for their lack of effective programs of supervision and curriculum improvement. The progress made by many high school and college teachers under good service programs suggests the appropriateness of giving the idea a trial in civilian institutions.

Preparation of Curriculum Materials.—In the preparation of curriculum materials, one might expect that the armed forces with their need for a standardized product would develop all instructional plans centrally and send them out to the many schools of a particular type. This would appear to be both logical and economical.

In certain branches of the services where courses are specified by central authority, only the general nature of the instruction is indicated. Detailed lesson outlines are prepared by instructors locally. Usually, the best schools seem to be those where there is a great amount of local activity in the organization of courses, the development of detailed job sheets, the cutting and ed-

iting of films, and the continuous adjustment of the instruction to new needs as they are discovered and to the changing nature of the student group.

Even on the national level where most over-all planning and organization work takes place, there is extensive reliance on conferences, and participation of representatives of schools. Some few teachers who hoped to get away from having to figure out what to do; who hoped someone would tell them; and who, most of all, thought they could avoid faculty meetings and time-consuming democratic procedures when they entered the military organization, very likely were sadly disappointed if they happened to be in one of the better service schools.

The Importance of Selection and Classification.—In an earlier section of this statement, the extent of selection and classification of men was mentioned as one of the differences between civilian and service schools. This practice was started in the first war with the popularization of the intelligence test. Although the armed forces have extended this development in the present war and were said to have used hundreds of aptitude tests, it seems unlikely that civilian schools will be as markedly influenced as they were twenty-five years ago. Schools and colleges have learned much about tests and should be able to use them more intelligently. Certainly these tools are not now used so effectively as our present knowledge would permit.

Service schools have obtained many startling results through the careful study of their human material and the development of cumulative records. For example, in one type of school, failure was reduced from 47 to 1 percent through the one means of more careful selection. In the training of crews for ships it was found that when men were carefully and scientifically

studied and placed, a ship could be put into combat weeks ahead of old schedules. These, of course, are all gains in the prosecution of the war. It is not difficult to see what the concomitant values are as a result of the success of individuals and increased morale. Civilian schools can properly take a cue from the service schools in both the study of students and the keeping of records.

Self-Teaching and Correspondence Study.—The educational program in the armed forces should challenge schools and colleges to analyze carefully the potential contribution of self-teaching materials and correspondence study as supplements to regular educational programs. The activities of the United States Armed Forces Institute are now widely known. Briefly the purpose is the provision of voluntary educational opportunities during off-duty time. This enables military personnel to become more proficient in their service jobs or to prepare themselves for return to civilian life. Working under varied conditions, some of which would be thought to make study impossible, thousands of men and women have worked intensively and hard on a great variety of subjects. Not only are dozens of correspondence courses available; self-teaching manuals have been prepared for those who are so located that it is impossible for them to send in correspondence lessons.

The navy has made extensive use of self-study courses for advancement in rating. Special materials are prepared involving naval terms and illustrations; questions and problems for study are introduced; and review exercises and self-checking tests are included. Instruction books are paper-bound. More and more frequently they are pocket size. Examinations can be taken under supervision of an officer. Success on tests is, of course, a factor in advancement in rating.

These service programs suggest that individual study under faculty direction might greatly expand the range of studies which a school can offer. With proper materials in the hands of students, the values from work experiences could be immeasurably increased. Adult education might find entirely new avenues for expansion if appropriate materials can be prepared and related to job opportunities.

THE RETURNING TEACHER

As high school and college teachers return to the classroom, they should bring back with them the benefits of the training and techniques which the services have enabled them to use. They should be irked by many of the traditional procedures that have bound them in the past. They should attack their problems with enthusiasm and vi-

talinity and thus help to break the conventional bonds that have stifled their efforts. We teachers did not dedicate our lives to the education of youth for the purpose or using our talents to prosecute a war, yet this war has served to open our eyes to many new possibilities for effective service by utilizing many good educational practices which were employed during the war. Civilian institutions will continue to carry on with their great contribution to democracy and they will rise to greater heights because of the great educational program of the war years. Youth in schools and colleges may receive benefit from this holocaust if our leaders in education study carefully the educational program which was developed under the direction of the armed services.

SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR TEACHERS IN THE NORTH CENTRAL AREA

RAY C. MAUL*

State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas

ANOTHER sensational drop in the already depleted supply of candidates for teaching positions is revealed in a report presented to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in its 1946 annual meeting in Chicago. Although the supply of available teachers has diminished steadily throughout the war, those available for appointment in September 1946, were found to be fewer than at any year during the war. This is particularly true insofar as elementary teachers are concerned.

The study covers a twenty-state area and extends from West Virginia to Wyoming and Arizona and includes all of the northern middle states. Exact data were secured by requesting reports from all colleges and universities in which students are preparing for teaching certificates. The figures for the current year (1946) are compared with those of one year ago (1945), two years ago (1944) and five years ago (1941).

The decrease in number of teachers preparing to enter the profession is 55.4 percent during the past five years.

The problem facing employers of teachers in 1946-47 is most acute in the elementary schools. At present the colleges in the twenty states are preparing 3,750 such students while five years ago these same colleges prepared 10,182 for

teaching in the elementary grades. Preparation of high school teachers this year include 4,954 whereas five years ago it totaled 9,327 students.

Schools everywhere have been forced to sacrifice standards and employ inferior people owing to the shortage of teacher personnel. In this twenty-state area the number of elementary teachers holding only emergency certificates has increased 18.6 percent over those working on emergency certificates a year ago. Under the foregoing circumstances a normal supply of well-prepared teachers cannot be expected in less than two, three, or four years at the earliest possible moment. College enrollments everywhere have diminished to such an extent that young men and women are not now in the earlier years of training which will enable them to qualify in less than two, three, or four years. Despite the recent sensational increases in college enrollment, there is specific evidence that the supply of well-prepared teachers is not assured at any future date. The great majority of new enrollees in colleges are veterans. At best these men can qualify for only certain types of teaching and few, if any, will enter the elementary field. Of even more importance is the striking indication that the vast majority of veterans are not pursuing college programs leading to teaching certificates.

The inquiry sought to determine the extent to which non-veterans formerly employed in war industries are returning to teaching. There is yet no evidence that the teaching profession will recruit any considerable number from this field.

* The study was directed by MR. MAUL who is registrar and placement officer at State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas. The other members of the committee which conducted this inquiry were T. M. STINNETT, the Arkansas State Teachers Association, and JOHN R. EMENS, President of Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana (*Chairman*). The study was authorized by the Commission on Research and Service.

The report shows that there is a widespread awakening to the alarming conditions in public schools everywhere. Boys and girls are not receiving instruction from adequately prepared teachers. Thousands of those now in service doing little more than attempting to maintain order. These ill-prepared teachers lack knowledge and vision of the problems of developing young minds.

Growing recognition of the situation is showing results through two specific

channels. First, teachers' salaries are increasing to the level of competition with other types of employment which have attracted superior youth. The report points definitely to further marked increases for the 1946-47 school year. Second, school authorities and lay organizations are awakening to the need for aggressive action in inviting superior high school graduates to consider teaching as a profession. The report points clearly to the need for further action in this latter channel.

SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR TEACHERS

A Brief Study by the Subcommittee on Teacher Personnel
March, 1946

The complete report follows:

FOLLOWING the issuance of similar studies one and two years ago, the Subcommittee on Teacher Personnel was directed by the Committee on Research and Service of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to collect up-to-date information concerning present conditions in the field of "Supply of and Demand for Teachers During the Emergency."

The 1946 study is in three parts. In Part I data were requested from all colleges and universities in the twenty-state area concerning (1) the number of students who are now completing courses of study leading to *standard* certificates and (2) the number of students in these same institutions who completed identical courses of study one year ago, two years ago, and five years ago. Although not all institutions reported, it is believed that the reports are fully representative and that the trends indicated, therefore, may be considered to be accurate. Part II is restricted to certain information supplied directly by the chief executive officer of state certificating officer

in each State Department of Education. Part III seeks specific answers to the question, "What is being done to recruit superior youth for teacher training?" The data for Part III were supplied by the chief executive officer or state certificating officer in each State Department of Education and also the executive secretary of each State Teachers (or Education) Association.

The results presented in Part I are based on reports from fourteen states; the results presented in Part II are based on reports from seventeen states; the results presented in Part III are based on reports from thirteen State Departments of Education and thirteen State Teachers Associations.

PART I

Data for Part I were requested from colleges and universities by the State Departments. In some instances these individual reports were forwarded directly to the committee; in some instances the state department authorities summarized the results for the entire state. It is known that the reports were practically complete from all colleges and universities in six states; from

other states the reports covered most institutions except in Indiana, where only four institutions reported. In studying the data presented in Part I, therefore, the reader should note that the percentages, rather than the totals, are significant.

Part I includes reports from the colleges and universities in fourteen states. These figures apply only to students qualifying for standard (not emergency) certificates. The subdivisions are self-explanatory. In no instance was an individual student counted more than once; each student was counted in the field of his first major professional interest.

A summary of the findings in fourteen states is given in Table I.

TABLE I

RECENT TRENDS IN NUMBERS OF STUDENTS
QUALIFYING FOR STANDARD CERTIFICATES
IN FOURTEEN STATES

Type of Preparation	Number of Students Completing Preparation			
	1946	1945	1944	1941
Elementary	3,757	4,190	5,002	10,182
High School	4,954	4,187	4,546	9,327
Total	8,711	8,377	9,548	19,509

Among elementary teachers the decrease from 1941 to 1944 was 50.9 percent; from 1944 to 1945, 16.2 percent; from 1945 to 1946, 10.3 percent; among high school teachers the decrease from 1941 to 1944 was 51.3 percent; from 1944 to 1945, 7.9 percent; the increase among high school teachers from 1945 to 1946 is 18.3 percent. Considering both elementary and high school the decrease from 1941 to 1944 was 51.1 percent; from 1944 to 1945, 12.3 percent. The increase in both elementary and high school teachers combined from 1945 to 1946 is 4 percent. In the

combined groups the decrease over the five-year period is 55.4 percent.

In preparing Tables I and II reports were used from *only* those colleges and universities which submitted complete data covering all four years.

PART II

1. In nine states reporting (Arizona, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Wyoming) the total number of elementary teachers in service during the 1945-46 year decreased .7 percent from the year before. (In 1945-46: 92,889; in 1944-45: 93,642.) In these nine states the number of elementary teachers holding only emergency certificates increased 18.6 percent. (In 1945-46: 15,149; in 1944-45: 12,771.) In these nine states the total number of high school teachers in service remained constant. The number of high school teachers holding only emergency certificates, however, increased 17.7 percent. (In 1945-46: 6,208; in 1944-45: 5,274.) In eight of the nine states reporting, the total number of teachers (both elementary and high school) who hold only emergency certificates increased since last year. In New Mexico, the percentage decreased. The greatest percentage increase in total teachers holding only emergency certificates occurred in South Dakota, where the increase is 35 percent.

2. It seems quite certain that every state is maintaining provision for the automatic expiration of emergency certificates of every kind. No state indicated an intention to permit an emergency certificate to remain valid beyond the end of the school year in which it was issued.

3. Renewal requirements for an emergency elementary certificate remain about the same as a year ago. In Arizona no emergency certificate will be granted to a person who does not

TABLE II
TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS COMPLETING COURSES OF STUDY ENTITLING THEM TO STANDARD CERTIFICATES

COURSE OF STUDY	ARIZONA				ARKANSAS				COLORADO				ILLINOIS				KANSAS				
	1944		1941	1945		1946	1944		1941	1945		1946	1944		1941	1945		1946	1944		1941
	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	
ELEMENTARY																					
120 semester hours	58	68	79	272	49	74	62	75	64	105	108	144	408	630	740	819	72	92	112	178	
90 semester hours					11	3	5	15	4	9	12	25	7	13	15	22	1				
60 semester hours					144	115	128	164	27	25	62	123	6	3	12	213	78	122	179	603	
30 semester hours					104	73	78	134	8	7	7	12			2		119	94	109	406	
ELEMENTARY TOTAL	58	68	79	272	308	265	273	388	103	146	189	304	421	646	769	1054	270	308	400	1187	
HIGH SCHOOL																					
Art																					
Commerce	1	3	4	16	12	7	5	5	10	10	17	38	26	25	28	48	15	15	12	30	
English	9	8	7	6	30	38	41	54	24	20	15	53	79	62	97	144	47	19	41	137	
Foreign Language	5	2	1	1	3	1	2	4	43	9	6	72	154	130	172	244	54	70	59	184	
Home Economics	2	2	1	1	3	1	2	4	12	9	6	17	34	43	39	65	15	15	7	25	
Industrial Arts	10	12	3	4	38	48	43	53	47	42	42	66	115	121	112	147	69	71	59	66	
Journalism	1	1	1	6	3	1	23		6	7	9	36	25	12	10	68	5	5	8	61	
Library Science										1		2	2	2						2	
Mathematics										1		1	1	15	16	22	2	5	4	15	
Music	1			3	5	3	6	12	7	6	11	27	53	30	37	97	13	20	21	39	
Physical Education	1	1	3	3	12	8	11	16	25	20	33	58	57	68	87	113	98	81	72	127	
Men	8	3		8		3	2	2	4	2	3	18	49	19	10	103	5	5	5	35	
Women	2	2	2	2	4	4	2		9	15	13	26	60	57	59	60	15	18	10	23	
Science																					
General Science																					
Biology																					
Chemistry	3	1	1	4	5	8	7	12	3	3	5	11	29	20	21	65	17	6	11	13	
Physics	1	1			3	7	3	10	1	1	2	6	14	1	5	13	5	7	6	17	
Social Sciences																					
Speech	3	5	3	6	38	44	33	57	43	32	47	108	150	121	160	289	80	51	46	147	
Vocational Agriculture					4	3	9	4	4	1	1	3	27	14	16	43	16	5	9	12	
Other					1	4	3	28	2	2	1	1	27	38	22	70	1	3	1	1	
					4	7	1	10	1	4	11	15	5	2	3	6	13	4	4	24	
HIGH SCHOOL TOTAL	47	39	27	61	162	187	193	276	240	220	267	573	947	795	917	1690	473	493	381	1002	
GRAND TOTAL	105	107	106	333	470	452	466	664	343	366	456	877	1368	1441	1686	2744	743	711	781	2189	

Read table thus: In Arizona in 1946, 58 students completed the 120 semester hour program in elementary education; in 1945, 68 students completed such a program. A standard certificate is not issued in Arizona on the basis of 90, 60, or 30 semester hours.

TABLE II (Continued)

COURSE OF STUDY	INDIANA				IOWA				MICHIGAN				MINNESOTA				NEBRASKA			
	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941
ELEMENTARY																				
120 semester hours					65	103	106	138	501	458	545	612	121	125	166	228	92	95	80	162
90 semester hours					230	279	332	535	97	141	151	386	357	207	279	792	32	21	44	61
60 semester hours					29	47	86	57									181	204	290	416
30 semester hours													73				73	83	85	331
ELEMENTARY TOTAL					324	429	524	730	598	599	696	998	478	332	445	1020	378	403	499	970
HIGH SCHOOL																				
Art	1				72	9	17	11	31	35	30	65	21	18	26	29	1	3	2	12
Commerce					29	28	29	76	58	51	42	122	47	35	60	32	41	45	44	72
English	7	4	10	15	46	63	69	97	116	94	91	143	123	132	137	208	58	55	50	86
Foreign Languages	1	3	5	2	3	6	9	7	50	35	46	50	27	8	15	25	4	3	8	9
Home Economics	1	5	3	8	91	90	134	140	69	106	113	142	72	74	80	91	33	36	38	65
Industrial Arts					5	2	6	9	19	12	5	65	20	10	5	38	17		6	20
Journalism					1			1	4	2	1	1						2	1	
Library Science									7	7	15	6	11	4	10	20				
Mathematics	1	1	2	4	11	4	11	41	52	33	22	53	46	20	18	76	17	10	6	36
Music	20	22	24	49	52	45	54	98	79	71	34	75	74	63	63	118	42	33	22	48
Physical Education																				
Men					11	2	3	33	30	9	10	103	12	7	3	61	11		7	4
Women					20	18	16	23	67	57	59	64	36	21	29	40	7	7	9	8
Science																				
General Science					10	4	17	28	6	8	3	30	36	19	20	31	3	3	1	8
Biology	2	1	2	3	5	5	5	16	20	10	14	42	18	15	12	28	4	3	9	15
Chemistry	1					1	3	8	21	7	6	38	9	5	4	25	6	6	3	14
Physics					1			1	3	2	4	5	2		1	4	2	3	2	14
Social Sciences	6	4	5	17	34	47	41	110	98	64	25	204	143	80	78	281	51	30	38	123
Speech			2	5	30	11	14	43	29	26	31	42		8	7	15	3	6	7	17
Vocational Agriculture					5		4		20	2	7	35	1	1	1	23	6	4	5	35
Other					13	12	16	26	7	7	15	22	37	22	18	72	4	4	1	1
HIGH SCHOOL TOTAL					440	349	445	777	736	638	573	1307	735	542	587	1327	310	253	259	587
GRAND TOTAL	40	42	53	108	440	764	969	1507	1334	1237	1269	2305	1213	874	1032	2347	688	656	758	1557

TABLE II (Concluded)

COURSE OF STUDY	NORTH DAKOTA						SOUTH DAKOTA						WEST VIRGINIA						GRAND TOTALS			
	1946			1945			1946			1945			1946			1945			1946		1945	
	1946	1945	1944	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941	1946	1945	1944	1941
ELEMENTARY																						
120 semester hours	37	50	45	109	82	24	28	52	38	24	120	129	145	268	1660	2012	2268	3111				
90 semester hours			1		17	40	51	82	312	312	51	115	82	312	133	179	176	475				
60 semester hours	110	186	185	592	28	408	138	161	187	408	91	92	129	394	1499	1552	1962	4626				
40 semester hours		3	7	43												3	7	43				
30 semester hours	48	52	99	236	84	751									465	444	589	1927				
ELEMENTARY TOTAL	195	286	337	980	87	1183	262	301	348	1183	262	336	356	974	3757	4190	5002	10,182				
HIGH SCHOOL																						
Art	2	3	3	2	6	1	7	7	3	1	10	3	9	9	203	125	155	253				
Commerce	16	23	23	36	19	26	55	44	44	26	55	44	44	77	440	366	437	870				
English	18	24	37	61	27	41	58	65	62	41	58	65	62	96	759	758	813	1417				
Foreign Languages																						
Home Economics				5	4	7	11	4	3	5	11	4	9	18	166	120	157	240				
Industrial Arts	51	36	54	67	13	46	60	87	85	62	687	768	831	985								
Journalism	2	2	1	19	1	3	9	2	52	3	9	2	4	23	114	56	79	357				
Library Science															7	5	2	6				
Mathematics															38	35	47	68				
Music	4	4	4	19	5	10	25	19	3	10	25	19	20	36	250	158	166	472				
Physical Education	12	6	8	15	10	18	30	31	10	18	30	31	32	38	523	401	463	805				
Men	2		3	10		5	21	6	1	5	21	6	6	32	163	61	53	527				
Women	2	3	4	4	3	21	34	21	2		34	21	31	28	200	228	239	299				
Science																						
General Science	2	5	9	20	1	1	10	12	1	1	10	14	4	27	86	88	71	243				
Biology	3	1	4	7	5	3	9	7	1	3	9	7	14	31	130	87	111	297				
Chemistry	2	3		8		8	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	8	68	46	41	183				
Physics				2		2	3	4	1	1	2	2	3	8	33	9	20	68				
Social Sciences	36	23	22	79	24	54	61	55	23	54	61	55	58	112	791	581	603	1651				
Speech																						
Vocational Agriculture	4	1	2	17	6	1	1	3	3	1	1	3	3	15	124	79	105	108				
Other	2	8	11	38		14	1	18	22	14	1	3	1	1	91	88	103	254				
HIGH SCHOOL TOTAL	158	142	188	409	124	253	404	428	492	1436	404	367	388	623	4954	4187	4546	9327				
GRAND TOTAL	353	428	525	1389	211	1436	666	703	744	1597	666	703	744	1597	8711	8377	9548	19,509				

Important: It must be noted that the data presented in Tables I and II were collected while enrollments were proceeding in many of the colleges and universities during the past two months. Returning veterans, therefore, will influence the 1946 totals somewhat, but only in those fields in which men may be expected to teach.

hold the degree. Such degree holders may not have more than six hours of deficiencies in specific requirements. In South Dakota the renewal requirement is three semester hours of college credit; in Arkansas, New Mexico, Ohio, and Wyoming the requirement is six semester hours; in Kansas, North Dakota, and Oklahoma the requirement is eight semester hours. In Missouri the certificate may be renewed for one year on request of city superintendents. In Iowa no emergency certificates are to be issued (to be valid in the 1946-47 school year) before August 1, 1946.

4. Renewal requirements for an emergency high school certificate remain about the same as a year ago. In Arizona no emergency certificate will be granted to a person who does not hold the master's degree. Such degree holders may not have more than six hours of deficiencies in specific requirements. In South Dakota the renewal requirement is three semester hours of college credit; in Michigan, Ohio, and Wyoming the requirement is six semester hours; in Kansas, North Dakota, and Oklahoma the requirement is eight semester hours. In Missouri the certificate may be renewed for one year on request of city superintendents. In Iowa no emergency certificates are to be issued (to be valid in the 1946-47 school year) before August 1, 1946. Colorado and New Mexico indicate that no high school emergency certificates are to be issued.

5. Retirement of teachers from service is high. In twelve states reporting (Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wyoming) 11.8 percent of the teachers in service during 1944-45 are not in service within the same state during the current school year. Wyoming reported the loss at 40 percent.

6. State authorities are not in agreement as to the influence of demobilization of the armed forces upon resignations during the current school year. Seven states report the rate of resignations to be about the same as a year ago. Four states report resignations at a more rapid rate, but can not furnish percentages. Two states report a "large number of married women resigning on short notice to rejoin returning husbands."

7. There is no indication that returning veterans are anxious to return to teaching assignments at once. Many show interest in teaching but express reluctance to accept appointment without ample time to survey the opportunities. There is growing indication that a larger number of returned veterans will accept teaching positions next September. No specific figures are available in any of the states.

8. Non-veterans who once held standard certificates and who have been employed in war industries are showing little or no interest in returning to teaching positions during the current year. Again very few of these former teachers are expressing desire to enter candidacy for places next September.

9. In the sixteen states reporting, elementary salaries during the current year are definitely higher than a year ago. These increases ranged from 5 percent in Michigan to 15-20 percent in North Dakota. The average is 10.2 percent.

10. In the fifteen states reporting, high school salaries during the current year are definitely higher than a year ago. These increases ranged from 5 percent in Michigan and Minnesota to 15 percent in Wyoming and 15-20 percent in North Dakota. The average is 11.7 percent.

11. In twelve states further increases in teachers' salaries for the 1946-47

school year are anticipated. These anticipated increases range from 5 percent in Illinois, Minnesota, and South Dakota to 10 percent in Arizona, Arkansas, Missouri, North Dakota, and Wyoming. The predicted average increase is 8.2 percent. In two states no increase next year is anticipated, while state authorities in one state report "doubtful" and state authorities in another state report "depends on legislative appropriation."

PART III

Part III of the study (not attempted last year) seeks answers to the question, "What efforts are being made to induce superior youth to enter teacher-training programs?" Inquiries were addressed to the certificating authority in each State Department and also to the executive secretary of each State Teachers (or Education) Association. Finally, each of these authorities was asked to refer the Subcommittee to any other individuals, institutions, organizations, or associations by which meaningful efforts are being exerted.

Replies were received from thirteen state offices and from thirteen executive secretaries of State Associations. An exhaustive review of the replies fails to yield any sensationally new techniques. It is most encouraging to note, however, that almost all replies point to a widespread arousal of public consciousness of the problem. Publicizing the shortage of adequately prepared teachers has stimulated the interest of many groups heretofore complacent about the welfare of the public school system. Recent salary increases and anticipated increases for next year can be credited in no small measure to the challenge which has been placed squarely before the American people.

Among the most frequently used techniques is the preparation and distribution of leaflets, pamphlets, post-

ers, and other printed matter. This material usually emanates from teachers colleges, university schools of education, and state departments. The common practice is to send it to high school authorities with the request that it be distributed among high school seniors. In numerous states this approach has not been recognized to be ineffective. High school principals have not been aggressive in presenting the material or in presenting arguments showing the advantageous opportunities in teaching. In general, the campaign to date has been largely carried by those not regularly in contact with high school seniors. Certain notable exceptions have been reported in which outstanding results have been achieved by campaigns within a given community. Much of this success can be credited to dynamic teachers and public school administrators.

Colleges and state departments, recognizing the ineffectiveness of their published material, are sending personal representatives into the high schools in increasing numbers. Here again, the effectiveness of this effort is conditioned by the active interest displayed by local high school authorities.

Other techniques generally employed include a wide variety of radio programs, the use of NEA films and other visual material, the sponsoring of FTA clubs at both the college and high school levels, and student membership in the State Association. Less frequently used techniques include special issues of the State Association journal, efforts to secure enactment of minimum salary laws, scholarships, workshops in teachers colleges to study the problems of recruitment, joint committees of state teachers association authorities and teacher-training staff members, sponsorship of essays on "Why I Plan To Become a Teacher" with cash prizes, proclamation of "Teacher Apprecia-

tion" Week by state governor, inviting high school seniors to visit and observe in elementary schools, use of Kuder tests to determine aptitude of high school seniors, and joint conferences by state departments and teacher-training staffs.

Many reporting authorities urged the active cooperation of superintendents and high school teachers in calling for the services of placement officers and other college staff personnel to meet with high school seniors. This particular procedure is perhaps best developed in Minnesota and Iowa.

A strong state-wide program is being sponsored in Iowa by the State Board of Educational Examiners and the State Teachers Association. For further information on the Iowa program, address Wayland W. Osborn, Executive Secretary, State Board of Educational Examiners, Des Moines.

Direct contact with teachers of the various high school subjects has yielded some results in Nebraska. F. E. Henzlik, Dean of Teachers College, University of Nebraska, reports excellent work on the part of a few public schools in which the most dynamic and popular teachers have promoted an aggressive campaign among superior high school seniors.

The State Teachers Association in Indiana is making a strong effort to raise funds for scholarships. The value of these proposed scholarships is to be \$2,000.00. The State Department is issuing a strong challenge to public school men throughout the state to assist in raising these funds. The executive secretary of the I. S. T. A. is Robert H. Wyatt.

CONCLUSIONS

In view of the findings revealed by this study, it seems fair to suggest certain conclusions as follows:

1. The available supply of elemen-

tary teachers will be definitely less for the 1946-47 school year than at any time during the war. This applies not only to those who have completed the full 130-hour curriculum but also to those who have completed authorized programs of 90 hours, 60 hours, or 30 hours. In particular the diminished supply of 60-hour trained elementary teachers is striking.

2. There is no available evidence that the trend has turned upward in the number of women pursuing elementary programs in colleges. It seems extremely doubtful, therefore, that beginning relief from the shortage can be anticipated under two, three, or four years, depending on the standards among the states.

3. While the anticipated supply of qualified high school teachers is slightly greater for 1946-47 than was the supply for 1945-46, the increase in rate is nominal.

4. It is yet too early to predict the influence of returning veterans upon the total teacher supply. Without doubt many men who taught before entering the armed forces will become candidates for positions next September, but the present uncertainty of veterans does not make possible any definite predictions. Moreover, the teaching fields to be influenced by returning veterans are definitely limited.

5. There is no available evidence that the trend has turned upward in the number of college students pursuing programs of preparation for high school teaching. This assumption seems sound despite the sensational increases in college enrollments during the past two months. Such evidence as is available seems to point to the choice of other professions rather than teaching by a very large majority of new college enrollees.

6. Later studies will be necessary to determine the extent to which relief

may be anticipated and the earliest possible dates for such relief as a result of increased college enrollments.

7. It is yet too early to predict the influence of former war industry workers upon next year's teacher supply. To date no considerable number of such persons who held standard certificates before entering the field have shown a desire to return to teaching.

8. The emergency certificate holder continues to increase both in numbers and in percentage, particularly at the elementary level. It is yet too early to anticipate immediate relief from the necessity of employing many teachers who cannot qualify for standard certificates.

9. It is gratifying to note that the spirit of North Central Association standards is being rigidly maintained. In no instance is a non-qualified person granted more than an emergency certificate and strict provision is made for the automatic expiration of such non-standard certificate.

10. Teacher mortality continues to influence, in a vital manner, the ef-

fectiveness of classroom service. Accurate data are not available as to the number of persons who leave the profession or who shift from state to state, but it is beyond assumption that the high percentage of turnover is a powerful deterrent to effective instruction.

11. It is increasingly apparent that more and more citizens of America are becoming aware of the importance of the well-prepared teacher in the classroom. While salary increases have probably been consistent with the increases in many other occupations, teaching continues to invite only a small percentage of superior youth. Perhaps the outstanding problem of the immediate future is the recruitment of such youth to enter programs of specific preparation for teaching.

12. The study has not revealed any sensationally new techniques in recruitment. Diverse efforts are being made throughout the twenty-state region, however, and further study of the techniques of recruitment seems desirable.

THE STUDY OF AMERICAN PROBLEMS THROUGH THE USE OF THE UNIT STUDIES OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION AND SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

EARL S. KALP

IN a little over a century and a half of national life, the American people and their leaders have made considerable progress toward political, economic, and social democracy. But during this period of nationhood, there have been and continue to be numerous perennial challenges to the degree of democracy already achieved. Moreover, these challenges stand as barriers to the extension and improvement of democratic practices in our society.

Since the original purpose of establishing public schools in the United States was to train for democratic citizenship, one of the foremost responsibilities of education today is to provide opportunities for young Americans to analyze the recurrent problems that confront our nation and local communities, and then to think through these issues in an attempt to find adequate solutions. The future security of American democracy is dependent upon the success of this type of education.

In an age characterized by violence and coercion it may be difficult for those engaged in the vital task of education for citizenship to hold fast to their faith in the method of persuasion. But, as Harry Emerson Fosdick so aptly puts it, "All the progress mankind has ever made has sprung from the victories of persuasion over coercion. Not only in good homes, good schools, good churches, but in democracy against tyranny, in free research against the shackling of men's minds, in ethical liberty against compulsive codes, in civilized society where violence has given way to law—always progress means that coercion has been pushed

back, and persuasion has won a wider field." Fundamental to the solution of the problem of American democracy is a firm faith in the effectiveness of the method of discussion and persuasion.

What, then are the persistent problems that challenge our democratic institutions? What is it that stands in the way of extending and improving democratic living in the various areas of our common life? There follows here a suggested list of perennial challenges to democracy in the United States:

1. Totalitarian social orders
2. War
3. Racial, national, and religious prejudices and frictions
4. Political, economic, and social misunderstandings among the nations of the Western Hemisphere
5. Unemployment
6. Inflation and deflation
7. Labor-capital frictions
8. Inadequate housing
9. Waste of natural resources
10. Waste of human resources
11. Inequality of educational opportunity
12. Governmental corruption and inefficiency
13. Indifference of voters
14. Governmental interference in business
15. Burden of taxation
16. Crime and juvenile delinquency

The reader is invited to make his own list. The teacher and members of the class in social problems may find it a significant experience to spend the first week of the course in seeking and listing the challenges to democracy to be found in textbooks, magazines, and newspapers. Parents, public officials, social workers, clergy, and others in the community may be consulted, on the question of what are the main problems of democracy today.

TOTALITARIAN SOCIAL ORDERS

Wherever and whenever the philosophy of totalitarianism dominates the life of a nation or nations there exists a threat to democracy. Totalitarianism by its very nature challenges such democratic practices as have been developed in the countries of the world. This is because totalitarianism is dictatorship so extreme that it calls for the control and regimentation of everything and everybody. It would substitute nationalism for free religion and education. The arrogant theory of the master race leaves no room for tolerance and appreciation of those of other nationalities, creeds, and races.

A very important question, then, for those who would preserve and improve our democracy is this one: Where in the world of today does totalitarian philosophy dominate national life? Are there totalitarian forces within our own nations?

WAR

War and democracy are not congenial. When war comes to a nation, democratic rights are temporarily suspended or permanently destroyed. Totalitarian controls must be established even in democratic countries in time of war. Business, labor, press, radio, religion, and education are likely to be more or less regimented in the interests of winning the war.

It was demonstrated in World War II how whole populations may be subjected to fire, injury, horror, and death. The advent of the atomic age merely accentuates these prospects for civilian populations if war should again come to the world.

The exercise of totalitarian controls, the terrific cost in life and materials for purely destructive purposes are alien to the philosophy and effective practice of democracy.

RACIAL, NATIONAL, AND RELIGIOUS
PREJUDICES AND FRICTIONS

Our land is inhabited by men and women of diverse races, nationalities, and religions. In the past various hate movements resulting in conflict and violence have developed. In numerous instances minority groups have been denied their democratic rights. Discrimination against Negroes, Jews, and other cultural groups in our midst has regularly taken place.

To the extent that such practices prevail we fall short of applying our democratic philosophy to our national life. Somehow we must develop a spirit of unity in diversity. Democracy calls for an understanding and appreciation of the contributions that all groups have made and may make to American life.

POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND CULTURAL
MISUNDERSTANDINGS AMONG THE
NATIONS OF THE WESTERN
HEMISPHERE

The people of the United States have frequently offended Latin-American peoples and nations. This may have occurred because of our lack of understanding of their cultures and our former policy of Latin-American imperialism. R. W. Crary points out that "since our nation has tried to live down its reputation south of the Rio Grande as the 'Colossus of the North' and has sought to establish a new one as the 'Good Neighbor,' interest in Latin America has increased a hundred-fold."¹

Good relations with our neighbors in this hemisphere is essential to the success of American democracy. When the forces of totalitarianism were loose in the world from 1933 to 1945, we saw the necessity of good neighbors.

¹ R. W. Crary, *Latin America and the World Struggle for Freedom*, p. 3. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1943.

Much more needs to be done by way of improving our relations in Latin-America and thus bringing about greater "hemisphere solidarity."

UNEMPLOYMENT

When millions of Americans are out of work and in need of the necessities of life, democracy is in danger. Such a condition is sure to bring widespread discontent among the masses of the people. When multitudes of people are in distress they are likely to listen to the panaceas of demagogues or turn to leaders who advocate totalitarian ideologies and practices. Full employment and a decent standard of living are prime essentials of the democratic way of life in any nation.

Youth is in the least favorable condition to find jobs in periods of unemployment. It is therefore very important to study the particular problems of youth and unemployment.

INFLATION AND DEFLATION

Booms and depressions tend to reduce the individual citizen's sense of security. When the business cycle fluctuates significantly downward the process of deflation sets in. In the face of declining prices and wages, it is next to impossible for the business man or the worker to pay fixed charges such as taxes, interest, rents, and the principal on mortgages. An equally serious economic situation arises when the business cycle spirals upward. Inflation of prices makes the value of the dollar decline. Wages and prices get out of balance. The cost of living may reach fantastic and absurd levels.

The problem of control of prices and wages so that both remain in balance is a highly important one to a nation that pursues the democratic ideal. Failure to solve this problem will produce serious unrest among our

citizenry, leading perhaps to the same evil that accompanies unemployment; namely, ripeness of the masses for dictatorship.

LABOR-CAPITAL FRICTIONS

A capricious business cycle resulting in disparities between wages and prices often leads to friction between labor and capital. Unemployment is also a contributing cause of poor relations between workers and employers. The results are waste of productive capacity, loss of earning power during strikes, and sometimes violence.

The post-war struggle between labor and industry has assumed gigantic proportions. Workers, employers, and the general public have suffered greatly.

If our nation is to enjoy a period of prosperous peace following the tragic and devastating war era, a satisfactory formula of prices and wages must be developed.

INADEQUATE HOUSING

The United States has both city and rural slums. People living in unsanitary and uncomfortable shacks and tenements cannot be expected to develop those qualities which make for good citizenship in a democracy. Millions of Americans are limited in their personal growth by poor housing conditions. At least two-thirds of all families in this country live in unsatisfactory dwellings. This condition has a very important relation to disease and crime. Epidemics, juvenile delinquency, and high fire rates are some of the fruits of life in the slum areas of this nation.

Only one-third of our population can afford adequate homes. Prior to World War II, two-thirds of the families of the United States had incomes of less than \$2,000. Any increase in income on the part of this large portion

of our population during and since the war has been more than offset by the tremendous increase in the price of real estate.

How can two-thirds of our families obtain comfortable housing when they are unable to afford it? This is a major issue before the American people.

WASTE OF NATURAL RESOURCES

In peace and in war the natural resources of our land are indispensable. The Natural Resources Planning Board has indicated the relation of the conservation of natural resources to our democratic way of life.

"The natural resources of America are the heritage of the whole nation and should be conserved and utilized for the benefit of all our people. Our national democracy is built upon the principle that the gains of our civilization are essentially mass gains and should be administered for the benefit of the many rather than the few; our priceless resources of soil, water, minerals are for the service of the American people, for the promotion of the welfare and well-being of all citizens."

We endanger the future of our nation so long as we continue to exploit rather than conserve our natural resources.

WASTE OF HUMAN RESOURCES

If our democratic nation is to retain and improve its virility, its citizens must have good physical and mental health. Our country cannot remain strong unless its people are strong. Today there are millions of families in the average income group that cannot obtain needed medical attention because of high medical costs which they simply cannot afford. Surveys of the United States Public Health Service indicate that America has at least twenty million cases of illness every year and much of this ill-health could

be prevented if adequate medical facilities were available.

It is true that much free medical attention is given to the poor by private physicians. This is a laudable and unselfish service, but it does not take care of middle income families who are not eligible for charity medicine.

The health problem is tied up closely with poor housing and unemployment.

INEQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

If the masses are to run their own affairs through a democratic organization of society, it follows that they must possess civic intelligence. But what are the facts with regard to literacy in the United States? Seven out of every hundred Americans of adult age are illiterate. Of the remaining ninety-three who have attended school, thirty-four have completed only a few years of elementary work, twenty-seven have graduated from the eighth grade, eighteen have done some high school work, while only six are high school graduates, four have some college work, and two have graduated from college.¹

In some parts of the country, educational opportunity is either very limited or non-existent. This is especially true of some parts of the South.

It is obvious that educational opportunity must be more nearly equalized if democracy is to be preserved and improved. It may be that wealth will have to be drawn from areas where it exists to educate children wherever they are even though their local educational units cannot afford to provide educational opportunities.

GOVERNMENT CORRUPTION AND INEFFICIENCY

Democracy must be more than an idealistic theory if it is to survive. It

¹ *Scholastic*, XXXV (October 23, 1939), 17.

must work in practice. Whenever corruption and inefficiency among public officials becomes a serious problem, the practical workability of democracy is likely to be questioned not only by our own people, but by leaders of other nations who lean toward dictatorship in government. The political boss system in both national and local politics and the activities of selfish pressure groups in defeating the will and best interests of the masses are outstanding examples of this evil.

If the people of the United States are to retain their cherished human rights, they must face and overcome corruption and inefficiency in their governmental system.¹

INDIFFERENCE OF VOTERS

Although fascist opposition to the democratic system may be a great danger to rule by the people, there is yet a more deadly enemy of free government—apathy and indifference toward the duties and responsibilities of democratic citizenship. When large numbers of people neglect their voting rights and privileges, it is easy for political bosses and small pressure groups to dominate legislation and law enforcement. Active opposition to democracy on the part of its enemies may stir the masses of people to make great sacrifices to defend and preserve democracy. But if many citizens become so engrossed in immediate personal concerns that they lose interest in being citizens and voters, the democratic system is likely to decay from the inside.

In a post-war era, with the immediate danger of external challenges to democracy at least temporarily removed, and the prospect of a boom period in business and personal con-

sumption, we need to guard against apathy and indifference.

GOVERNMENTAL INTERFERENCE IN BUSINESS

Traditionally the American economic system has been one of laissez-faire capitalism. Gradually over a long period of time government has increased its participation in business. Not only have governmental agencies regulated, controlled, and even owned some businesses, but they have given both informational and financial help to many of our industries.

The important question is how far a democratic government can go in participating in business without undemocratically regimenting the business man and the worker.

BURDEN OF TAXATION

Increasingly heavy demands for new governmental services and the terrific cost of modern warfare have made it necessary for local, state, and national governments to collect more and more money through taxation. The tax burden has become a progressively heavier one.

Systems of taxation and enforcement of tax laws have often been unfair or ineffective. Taxation has sometimes been excessive and unequal due to antiquated methods.

From a democratic standpoint, the main problem of taxation is to develop a system based upon ability to pay.

CRIME AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The general welfare of our society is endangered by crime and juvenile delinquency. Widespread disobedience to law costs the people of this country about ten billion dollars a year. But the real threat of crime is that it tends to undermine the stability of our social order.

¹ See C. C. Carrothers, *Civil Service*. Boston: Ginn and Company.

The main causes of crime seem to be found in social and economic conditions rather than in the inferior mental and physical constitution of the criminal. Although there is a small percentage of crime that is traceable to feeble-mindedness and insanity, most of it is connected with poverty, poor housing, unemployment, congested city life, gang politics, and the faulty administration of criminal laws.

The solution of the crime problem will depend to a great extent upon the progress we make in eliminating many of the undemocratic social, economic, and political evils that have been mentioned previously in this discussion.

THE PROBLEMS APPROACH

During the past decade, a growing interest in the American Problems or Problems of Democracy type of course has developed among high school teachers and students. In many instances a list of problems or challenges to democracy, formulated through pupil-teacher planning discussions, has served as the basis for the course.

Classroom libraries of materials relating to the problems selected by students and teachers have been established. Current textbooks, specialized books dealing with one problem, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers have been used to obtain vital information and opinions on the topics being studied.

Many additional student activities aside from reading have increased the fund of information regarding American problems. Guest speakers have been invited to classes. Students have gone out of the school into the surrounding community to interview adults who might be able to help them to a better understanding of the problem being investigated. Excursions and field trips have been planned and carried out.

The problems approach to the study of the main challenges to American democracy has been more effective when acceptable principal steps or organization has been discussed with the class and agreed upon. The following analysis has proved valuable and a similar organization is recommended wherever such an approach is utilized.

1. What is the problem? State it.
2. Gather and give facts concerning the problem.
 - a. From books, booklets, and pamphlets
 - b. From magazines and newspapers
 - c. By outlining and note-taking
 - d. From guest speakers
 - e. From interviews
 - f. From excursions or field trips
 - g. By giving oral reports
 - h. From student discussions
 - i. From classroom debates
 - j. From teachers' lectures
3. Examine information critically.
 - a. Avoid common faults in thinking such as making sweeping generalizations or accepting rumor and hearsay as evidence for reaching final conclusions.
 - b. Learn to recognize and discount emotional appeals by propagandists such as use of glittering generalities, name calling, and appeals to prejudice.
4. List the possible solutions to the problem along with the advantages and disadvantages of each solution.
5. Decide tentatively which solution best measures up to democratic values. This means that each student will need to define what he means by democracy.
6. Ask the question—What can be done about this problem here and now? In the future? What social action is suitable and desirable for high school students? For adult citizens?

THE SUBJECT-FIELD APPROACH

Another method of studying political, economic, and social problems of democracy that deserves mention is the subject-field approach. For example, the students in American Government classes have, in addition to the main task of studying the structure of government, considered incidentally the problems suggested to them by the particular phase of govern-

ment being studied. When the class came to the study of the local court system, it considered the crime problem. When the American system of voting happened to be the assignment, the problem of the apathy of voters received consideration.

Likewise in principles of economic courses, economic problems have been suggested by the study of principles. In sociology classes, the same has been true.

The difference between the problems and the subject-field approaches is mainly one of emphasis. In the former, the challenges to American democracy form the backbone of the course; in the latter, the study of American Problems is incidental and supplementary.

BASIC AND SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Carefully selected basic and supplementary materials are essential to an effective American problems course. The Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has been working for the past seven years on basic materials for use in American problems courses. Their series of booklets—*Unit Studies in American Problems*—is the result. These materials have been produced by practicing teachers of social studies working under the direction of the committee. In each instance the writers and the committee have had access to the counsel, suggestions, and criticisms of eminent authorities in the social science fields covered in the unit studies. All of the units have been used experimentally in actual classroom situations before publication.

This series of pamphlets is designed to serve as the basis for an American problems course. The units may also be used individually to supplement courses in history, civics, economics, sociology,

and problems of democracy. The series is published by Ginn and Company, Boston.¹

1. EARL S. KALP and ROBERT M. MORGAN. *Democracy and Its Competitors*.

A contrast of democracy versus dictatorship in terms of government, business, agriculture, labor, education, religion, press, radio, and the individual. Penetration of totalitarianism into the Western Hemisphere. How democracy may be preserved and improved.

2. DOUGLAS S. WARD and EDITH M. SELBERG. *Youth and Jobs*.

Telling young America, as it rolls up its sleeves, what youth surveys show, why good jobs were hard to find, what is being done to help youth, how to find jobs, how to grow in a job, how war affects unemployment, how to build a better future.

3. CONWAY L. RHYNE and ELLSWORTH E. LORY. *Conservation of Natural Resources*.

A well-knit treatment of a subject of vital importance in both war and peace. Covers soil, water, forests, wildlife, minerals, and vocational opportunities. Discusses waste, exploration, importance of conservation as practiced, and further need.

4. MARY P. KEOHANE. *Government in Business*.

What government does to help business; government as regulator; growth of government business (schools, hospitals, highways, etc.); public water and power; Federal enterprises; outlook.

5. EDWARD A. KRUG. *Why Taxes?*

Inclusive study from the point of view of taxation as a real venture in applied democracy.

6. CHESTER C. CARROTHERS. *Civil Service*.

Bird's eye-view of civil service under federal, state, county, and city governments. "Practical information about civil service not easily obtainable from any one source."

7. ARCHIE W. TROELSTRUP. *Housing in the United States*.

Shortages; effects of substandard housing and why we have it; what we are doing about it; more intelligent community planning.

8. RYLAND W. CRARY. *Latin America and the World Struggle for Freedom*.

¹ Two other units not listed here, *Defense of the Western Hemisphere* and *In the Service with Uncle Sam*, have been published. While these pamphlets met a real need of social studies classes prior to and during the war, they are for the most part obsolete. However, both are still in part useful. The chapter on "Education" in *Defense of the Western Hemisphere* and the chapter on the "FBI" in the unit *In the Service with Uncle Sam* are still of value.

History of Latin America; its basis geographical concepts; people and nations as they are today; great cities; economic questions; cultural trends and social problems; relationships with the United States; its role in the world struggle for freedom.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

A. Pamphlets

1. Headline Books, published by the American Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York.
2. Public Affairs Pamphlets, published by the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.
3. Consumer Education Series, published by Consumer Education Study, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.
4. Far East Books, a co-operative project between the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, and Webster Publishing Company, 1808 Washington Avenue, St. Louis, Missouri.
5. Problems in American Life, National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Council of Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.
6. Building America, Americana Corporation, 333 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, Editorial offices, 2 W. 45 St., New York, a publication of the Society for Curriculum Study.

B. Magazines and Newspapers

American Observer
Senior Scholastic (combined edition)
Our Times
Time
Newsweek
United States News
Atlantic Monthly
Harper's Magazine
Nation
Survey Graphic
Current Science and Aviation
New York Times
Christian Science Monitor

C. Textbooks

1. N. D. HOUGHTON. *Realities of American Government*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937.
2. R. E. and M. P. KEOHANE and J. C. MCGOLDRICK. *Government in Action*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937.
3. FRANK ABBOTT MAGRUDER, *American Government*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1942.
4. E. P. ALLEN. *Man's Adventure in Govern-*

ment. Iowa City, Iowa: Midland House, 1939.

5. V. N. AKER and H. F. AKER. *You and Your Government*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner Publishing Company, 1944.
6. R. W. GAVIAN. *Society Faces the Future*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938.
7. W. G. BEACH and E. E. WALKER. *Social Problems and Social Welfare*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937.
8. W. D. WALLIS and G. A. WALLIS. *Our Social World*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940.
9. E. E. WALKER, W. G. BEACH and O. G. JAMISON. *American Democracy and Social Change*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936.
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11. S. W. PATTERSON, A. W. LITTLE and H. R. BURCH. *American Social Problems*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939.
12. S. W. PATTERSON, A. W. LITTLE and H. R. BURCH. *Problems in American Democracy*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.
13. HERBERT BOHLMAN and EDNA MCCAUL BOHLMAN. *Our Economic Problems*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1942.
14. J. H. DODDS. *Applied Economics*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1945.
15. LUTZ, FOOTE and STANTON. *Getting a Living*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1945.
16. M. P. KEOHANE and R. E. KEOHANE. *Exploring Your Community*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1941.
17. H. E. BROWN. *Your Life in a Democracy*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1944.
18. L. O. PACKARD, B. OVERTON and B. D. WOOD. *Our Air-Age World*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1944.

A SUGGESTED LIST OF PUPIL ACTIVITIES

It is recommended that the teacher and pupils develop a master list of pupil activities which can be adapted to each unit of study. The following is a start in that direction.

A. Information-gathering activities:

1. Read books, pamphlets, magazine and newspaper articles and editorials pertinent to the problem you are considering.
2. Outline materials read or take notes on essential facts and opinions.
3. Invite guest speakers from your com-

munity who can give information about the problem being studied.

4. Send small committees of students to interview persons in the community who can give helpful information on each unit.
5. Plan and take excursions and field trips to observe governmental, social, and economic institutions in your town and state to gather specialized facts not easily obtained in textbooks and other materials of a general nature.

B. Information-giving activities:

1. Informal classroom discussions.
2. Panel discussions.
3. Oral reports.
4. Classroom debates.
5. Preparation of bulletin boards and other displays or exhibits.
6. Preparation of papers and making them available to other students.

7. Development of cartoons, graphs, charts, and maps.

C. Social-action:

1. At the conclusion of each unit, decide if there is any social action the members of the class may and should take regarding the problem just studied.
2. Participate in the democratic activities of your own school (student government).
3. After studying carefully the issues of local, state, and national elections, organize your school for political rallies and voting.
4. Make a study of the way in which adults in your community use or do not use their voting privileges. If a get-out-the-vote campaign is needed, plan and carry out such a campaign.
5. When you have convictions about an issue, write your duly elected representatives.

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PUBLICATIONS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION¹

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. Editorial Office, 4012 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service
 - A. Book—*General Education in the American High School*, 336 pp., Scott, Foresman, and Company
 - B. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in high school social studies classes. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company
 1. *Why Taxes? What They Buy for Us*, by EDWARD A. KING
 2. *Civil Service: Our Government as an Employer*, by CHESTER C. CARROTHERS
 3. *Democracy and Its Competitors*, by EARL S. KALP and ROBERT M. MORGAN
 4. *Housing in the United States*, by ARCHIE W. TROELSTRUP
 5. *Government in Business*, by MARY P. KEOHANE
 6. *Defense of the Western Hemisphere*, by EARL S. KALP and ROBERT M. MORGAN
 7. *Youth and Jobs*, by DOUGLAS S. WARD and EDITH M. SELBERG
 8. *In the Service with Uncle Sam*, by EARL S. KALP
 9. *Latin America and the World Struggle for Freedom*, by RYLAND W. CRARY
 10. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by CONWAY L. RHYME and ELLSWORTH E. LORY
 - C. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects. Distributed from the office of Secretary G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska
 1. Assigning Teachers in the Secondary Schools: A Guide to Better Practice
 2. The Supply of and the Demand for Teachers during the Emergency
 3. A Study of Teacher Certification
 4. Better Colleges, Better Teachers
 5. A Study of In-Service Education
 6. Attacking Reading Problems in Secondary Schools (A new type of publication for teachers. A practical guide for classroom practices)
 - D. Syllabus—*Functional Health Teaching*, by LYNDIA M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Distributed free to members of Commission and member schools
 - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
 - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications Sponsored by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
 - A. *Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vols. 1-7. Chicago: University of Chicago Press
 1. *Principles of Accrediting Higher Institutions*, by GEORGE F. ZOOK and M. E. HAGGERTY, 1936. Pp. 202. \$2.00
 2. *The Faculty*, by M. E. HAGGERTY, 1937. Pp. v+218. \$2.00
 3. *The Educational Program*, by M. E. HAGGERTY, 1937. Pp. v+335. \$3.00
 4. *The Library*, by DOUGLAS WAPLES, 1936. Pp. v+86. \$1.00
 5. *Student Personnel Service*, by DONFRED H. GARDNER, 1936. Pp. v+235. \$2.50
 6. *Administration*, by J. D. RUSSELL and F. W. REEVES, 1935. Pp. v+285. \$3.00
 7. *Finance*, by J. D. RUSSELL and F. W. REEVES, 1935. Pp. v+133. \$2.00
 - B. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*, July 1941; \$3.00, including later revised pages. Available from office of the Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities
 - C. *Home Economics in Liberal Arts Colleges*, by CLARA M. BROWN. Published 1943, under joint sponsorship with the American Home Economics Association. \$1.00

¹ Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Executive Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Administration Building University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

- D. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers at the office of the Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and universities without cost
1. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Higher Institutions, Operation of the Accrediting Procedure," July 1, 1941
 2. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
 3. "Periodicals for the College Library," prepared for the Committee on Revision of Standards by DOUGLAS WAPLES
 4. "Changes in Enrollments over a Fifteen-year Period in Institutions Accredited for 1936-37 by the North Central Association," by WM. J. HAGGERTY and GEO. A. WORKS
 5. "An Analysis of the Library Data of the Higher Institutions of the North Central Association for the Year 1933-34," by WM. J. HAGGERTY and GEO. A. WORKS
 6. "Colleges and Students—A Summary of Data Concerning the Number and Distribution of Students and Higher Institutions in the United States for the Period 1921-22 to 1935-36, with Special Reference to the Territory Served by the North Central Association," by WM. J. HAGGERTY and A. J. BRUMBAUGH
 7. "Professional Education in Physical Education," by D. OBERTEUFFER
 8. "Music Education in Higher Institutions," by ALBERT RIEMENSCHNEIDER
 9. "Nursing Education in Higher Institutions of the North Central Association," by LUCILE PETRY
 10. "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-five North Central Colleges," by MELVIN W. HYDE and EMIL LEFFLER
 11. "An Analysis of Financial Data of the Higher Institutions of the Association for the Fiscal Year 1939-40," by JOHN OLIVER and A. J. BRUMBAUGH
 12. "A Study of Administrative Functions," by MELVIN W. HYDE and EMIL LEFFLER, January 1943 (mimeographed)
 13. "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," by ANTON J. CARLSON
 14. "An Analysis of the Library Data of the Higher Institutions for the North Central Association for the Year 1941-42," by D. M. MACKENZIE and A. J. BRUMBAUGH
- V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies
- A. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*. Published in 1944, in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Looseleaf. Order from G. P. Tuttle, 363 Administration Building (W), Urbana, Illinois. \$3.00
- B. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.
1. *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: General Report*, \$3.50.
 2. *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: Supplementary Reprints*, \$1.50
 3. *How to Evaluate a Secondary School* (1940 Edition), cloth \$1.25; paper, \$0.90
 4. *Evaluative Criteria* (1940 Edition), cloth \$1.00; paper \$0.60; set of separate pamphlets \$0.05 each
 5. *Educational Temperatures* (1940 Edition), \$0.50
 6. *Evaluation of a Secondary School Library* (1938 Edition), \$0.35
- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage.

